

# Contemporary Psychology

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- |      |     |  |
|------|-----|--|
| Page | 124 | College Teaching: A Psychologist's View, by C. E. Buxton.<br><i>Reviewed by R. P. Youtz</i>  |
|      | 227 | Interpersonal Diagnosis of Personality: A Functional<br>Theory and Methodology for Personality Evaluation, by<br>Timothy Leary.<br><i>Reviewed by W. C. Schutt</i> |
|      | 228 | Le maniement humain, by Henri Piéron, M. Courdrou,<br>G. Durkadin, and G. de Montmollin.<br><i>Reviewed by W. W. Wilkinson</i>                                     |
|      | 240 | Human Problems of a State Mental Hospital, by Ivan<br>Belknap.<br><i>Reviewed by Phyllis W. Hoffman</i>  |
|      | 251 | Vocational Counseling with the Physically Handicapped,<br>by L. H. Lofquist.<br><i>Reviewed by Abraham J. Lipp</i>   |
|      | 252 | The Patient Speaks, by H. A. Abramson.<br><i>Reviewed by Zanvil Bromberg</i>   |
|      | 253 | Mass Culture: The Popular Arts in America, by Bernard<br>H. Rosenberg and D. M. White (Eds.).<br><i>Reviewed by Franklin Tearing</i>                               |

(Continued on inside cover)

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#### CONTENTS—continued

#### 234 CP SPEAKS . . .

By the EDITOR

#### 236 Education for Marriage, by J. A. Peterson

*Reviewed by* LOUIS KERDMAN

#### 237 Techniques of Attitude Scale Construction, by A. L. Edwards

*Reviewed by* L. W. FERGUSON

#### 238 A New Approach to Schizophrenia, by J. I. Steinfeld

*Reviewed by* JOHN ARSENIAN

#### 239 Conditioning and Sexual Behavior in the Male Albino Rat, by Knut Larsson

*Reviewed by* CAROLINE H. MEIXNER

#### 240 Problems of Power in American Democracy, by Arthur Kornhauser (Ed.)

*Reviewed by* MORRIS JANOWITZ

#### 240 Elements of Supervision, by W. R. Spriegel, Edward Schulz, and W. B. Spriegel

*Reviewed by* A. M. MUNGER

#### 242 School Problems in Human Relations, by Lloyd Cook and Elaine Cook

*Reviewed by* S. M. COREY

#### 243 Mobilizing Community Resources for Youth, by P. H. Bowman, R. F. DeHaan, J. K. Kough, and G. P. Liddle

*Reviewed by* R. H. OJEMANN

#### 244 Sense and Nonsense in Psychology, by H. J. Eysenck

*Reviewed by* RUTH S. TOLMAN

#### 245 Student Mental Health: An Annotated Bibliography, by D. H. Funkenstein and G. H. Wilkie (Eds.)

*Reviewed by* G. W. GOETHALS

#### 246 FILMS . . .

*Reviewed by* ADOLPH MANOIL, Film Editor

#### 247 ON THE OTHER HAND . . .

#### 248 List of Books Received

*Books for review.* review manuscripts, letters for publication, and correspondence concerning editorial matters should be sent to the Editor, Edwin G. Boring, Memorial Hall, Harvard University, Cambridge 38, Mass.

*Films for review and correspondence concerning films* should be sent to the Film Editor, Adolph Manoil, Park College, Parkville, Mo.

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# Contemporary Psychology

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## Teaching Is an Essential Art, Not a By-Product

Claude E. Buxton

**College Teaching: A Psychologist's View.** New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1957. Pp. viii + 404. \$4.95.

Reviewed by RICHARD P. YOUTZ

*Dr. Youtz, like the author of the book he reviews, is a teacher of psychology and a good one. That is what the discerning eye perceives. He is also Chairman of the Department of Psychology at Barnard College, Hollingworth's successor. He has been active on various Barnard committees which had the making of Barnard a better college as their goal, and he hopes that Barnard and its Department of Psychology will be ready for the greatly increased numbers of students that will be pressing for admission well before 1970.*

ARE you going to teach? Do you teach now? Have you taught? Do you recall that first year of teaching: those first lectures—the surprising amount of preparation—the astonishing length of a fifty-minute period (and later its astonishing shortness)—the student anxiety over examinations and grades—the examination questions that were misunderstood, and the questions that rang the bell—the class discussions which wandered, the really productive sessions—the successes—the failures?

And in later years: the progressive revision of courses to a more appropriate arrangement—the enthusiastic classes, and the bored classes—the research projects that succeeded, and those that fizzled—the committee meetings—the goals-of-a-liberal-arts-education discussions—the varieties of value systems,

and the surprising unity of purpose—the politics—the accomplishments?

In this stream-of-consciousness list are only a few of the topics that Buxton examines in his *College Teaching*. During the ten years since he first offered a seminar on teaching he has observed and gathered the problems of college teachers and the many attempted solutions, successful and frustrating. Enriched by his own thoughtful consideration and placed in a meaningful context of explicit goals and stated assumptions, he considers these problems specifically and realistically. His lore is well presented.

And *lore* is not used in any unpleasant sense. Teaching is an art and not a science. Practice far outruns theory here, as in most psychological fields. The science of teaching waits on new discoveries. Buxton has surveyed the relevant studies but there are not to be found any sets of operationally defined procedures that will assure success in teaching.

He aims his book at the beginning teacher: "This book is intended to suggest things he may look for, attitudes he may adopt, aspects of sheer technique he may try out, and even some of the goals he may try to achieve. But he will have to do the trying for himself. If he will try, and if he can recognize his successes and admit his failures, he will gradually shape his performance to be satisfyingly

effective in his own eyes and the eyes of his students."

With the number of college students expected to double between 1955 and 1970, teachers may soon be recognized as valuable because of their scarcity. For the new instructors coming into colleges in the next few years, *College Teaching* should provide an excellent source of information. In its fourteen chapters it gives the new teacher an orienting survey of his educational roles in the general-to-specific contexts of his nation, his university, his department, his classroom, and his desk where he counsels an individual student. For all of these frames of reference, trends and issues are well delineated. This information comes from the author's personal experience in the classroom, from his supervision of many beginning teachers, and from a careful combing of the relevant literature—295 references, from Adkins to Zander.

The educational issues in the broader contexts of the nation and the university are taken up first, followed by a consideration of specific techniques in the department and the classroom. Let us take some specific examples.

ACTIVE faculty members will have participated in many discussions, in committee and out, on the goals of particular courses and the aims of college curricula in general. A chapter on *Liberal and General Education* gives the beginning teacher a preview of these discussions and presents a reasonably tenable position. For example: "Liberal education is intended to free the individual from rigid, habitual, or biased modes of thought, to help him to explore many realms of knowledge and activity, and to lead him to cherish the pleasures and responsibilities of such freedoms."



Somewhat more unusually the author feels that the teacher is shirking his duty unless he makes sure that students develop along certain lines. "Liberal education, in all its methods and content, is intended to strengthen certain motives, such as those related to responsibility for society and self; to strengthen or inculcate other motives;" and again, "liberal education is in its own way calculated in part to ensure certain lines of development or conduct rather than others." The faculty should be responsible for this.

ON more doubtful ground the author remarks parenthetically: "This kind of analysis, and the assumption of responsibility by the faculty, is seen as a sharp contrast to the *more common and less reasoned adoption of a laissez-faire attitude* with respect to the impact of education upon student motivation." (The italics are the reviewer's.)

In short, teachers have a responsibility to see that students develop responsibility—as well as right motives and certain lines of conduct. Certainly this aim seems desirable. A problem arises, nevertheless, in choosing the right alternative attitudes to replace *laissez-faire*. (Elsewhere it is clear that the author is opposed to 'authoritarian' modes of teaching.) So the reviewer raises the question of how teachers can abandon a *laissez-faire* attitude before they are agreed upon *which motivations are best for society*. And again we note that, although each teacher inculcates as hard as he can, the students will still be left in a *laissez-faire* setting, since each of them must construct his own value system from the many presented. This is the only point that one might question in Buxton's lively discussion.

In an admirably instructive and revealing chapter on *The Career of the College Teacher*, the author lays out in explicit fashion the tactics and strategy of getting a job and of being a department member. Most teachers have had to find these things out for themselves. It is a good thing for the young teacher (and his department) to have him told about these things as he is in this book. So many different matters are considered, that we can mention here only a sample from one of six sections of this chapter.



CLAUDE E. BUXTON

A few of the items which a new instructor should explore are the following: the formal grading system at the new institution, as well as the unwritten laws and customs about grading; the peculiarities of the academic calendar, and the holidays that are and are not observed; how the library operates; how to secure funds for research; the spheres of influence within the department; any "smouldering or active volcanoes of dissension"; the "hard facts of life" about the bases for promotion; to what extent the instructor is hired to teach and promoted for research.

Every college or university and every department has its own culture pattern, the little customs which should be observed by the newcomer. This chapter should be of considerable interest both to the newcomers and the oldtimers.

SIMILARLY Buxton devotes relevant and specifically helpful chapters to course planning, methods of teaching (like lecturing, discussion, and group-centered procedures), and the construction and grading of examinations, all aspects of teaching which the graduate student does not ordinarily have in his course of studies.

Although he states flatly that under certain circumstances lecturing seems

to be the best method, he also urges consideration of discussion methods and group-centered methods which may be more desirable under certain circumstances of sophistication of students. He considers carefully the problem of when to use each method and describes the various kinds of discussion, buzz sessions, and group-centered teaching in detail specific enough to enable a person who has not seen them used to try them out in the classroom. He gives both experimental and results-of-experience reports of the consequences of the different methods, along with references that may be followed up for further information.

THE instructor's reputation as a teacher, his rapport with his students, and his relationships to them in class and individually are also comprehensively treated. Buxton outlines techniques to ensure the students' "Personal status protection" and the students' "Right to be ignorant," matters which instructors sometimes forget. An instructor should also avoid even the appearance of favoritism or its opposite. As Buxton says, "He may unwittingly be too generous or too severe in dealing with a Negro student, a crippled student, a beautiful girl, or other minority group members." These and many other points, frequently glossed over or ignored, the author treats in an objective manner helpful to an instructor who has not met the problems before or who has met them unsuccessfully.

This is an important book. It should be useful to all college teachers. Although it will be most appropriate for those in the behavioral sciences, particularly the psychologists, it is only fair to say that twelve of the fourteen chapters should be entirely understandable to teachers in any field.

From the specificity of this book, from its high degree of organization, and from its careful documentation, it is evident that this achievement of Buxton's has been a labor of love and of careful accumulation of experience and observation. Most of the teachers I know, including the one I know best, would have found this book most useful just before beginning teaching, but they can still benefit from it after years of experience.

# Levels and Dimensions of Personality

Timothy Leary

**Interpersonal Diagnosis of Personality: A Functional Theory and Methodology for Personality Evaluation.** New York: Ronald Press, 1957. Pp. xix + 518. \$12.00.

Reviewed by William C. Schutz

*Dr. Schutz is a Lecturer and Research Associate in the Department of Social Relations at Harvard University. He is interested in studying interpersonal relations within small groups and is now completing a book presenting a theory of interpersonal relations. He feels that psychodynamic theory ought to be conceptualized in such a way as to retain the insights of the practitioners within a methodologically rigorous framework set up by the logicians and philosophers of science. He once studied under Reichenbach.*

HERE we have reports of research by the Kaiser Foundation Psychology Research Project of Oakland, California, and a discussion that presents the theoretical and methodological ideas developed by Leary and other members of this project. The work unquestionably represents a major advance in clinical diagnosis. The objectively-oriented neo-Sullivan approach is systematic without sterility and richly deserves the attention of all those concerned with objectifying clinical phenomena. With respect to method and theory the conceptions are splendid, but the execution is weak both logically and empirically. Let us consider what are probably the two major problems dealt with in this work.

"Levels of personality" is one of the fundamental concerns of personality theory. Perhaps the most important contribution of the Kaiser group is the attempt to construct a systematic, empirical, multilevel conception of personality. These levels are described as (I) Public Communication (social impact on others), (II) Conscious Communication (perceptions of self and world), (III) Private Communication (precon-

scious symbolic expressions), (IV) The Unexpressed (omitted themes), (V) Values (ego ideal). For each level a variety of measures is introduced (e.g., MMPI, TAT, sociometric rating, observers' ratings). This formulation is an expansion (though not necessarily an improvement) of Freud's conscious, preconscious, and unconscious levels.

Two important features of a multilevel system are (a) to provide a theoretical framework showing relations between many personality tests and measures and (b) to aid in the construction of new behavior and personality measures by providing a basis for logical clarity and consistency of items.

The main difficulty in the Kaiser attempt seems to be failure to use systematically a fixed set of criterion variables to define their levels. The Kaiser levels, while exceedingly commendable as an *idea*, seem at this point to be in part a relatively unsystematic conglomeration of several criteria, which, if logically and empirically refined, should enhance the usefulness of multilevel schema enormously. A study of these levels reveals at least three criteria used unsystematically and inconsistently to distinguish different levels: the aspect of phenomena observed, the source of observation, and the object of description.

First, the *aspect of phenomenon* observed differs for different levels. For the first four levels "depth" of the personality is a criterion. These levels work "sequentially from the public overt aspects of the behavior into more private, unexpressed areas." Observation indicates that *public* and *private* refer not to source of data, but rather to the aspect of behavior that is the focus of interest and investigation. The kinds of questions the

data of Level I and Level II answer are: "Is he a dominant person?" "Does he think he's hostile?" "Do others regard him as submissive?" If we express focus of interest in terms of questions, the phenomena of the first two levels may be characterized by a question about interpersonal behavior: "What does X do to Y?" Level III, dealing with underlying private *motives*, answers questions such as "Does he have underlying hostile and destructive desires?" Thus the phenomena of this level may be phrased, "How would X like to act or feel toward Y?" Level IV, dealing with those themes that are most threatening to the self, primarily with interpersonal *anxiety*, answers questions such as "Does he really fear domination?" "Is he anxious about expressions of affections?" In general Level IV answers questions of the form, "What does X fear Y will act or feel toward X?" Level V (values), according to Leary, does not fit into the depth sequence.

The *source of observation* differs for some levels. The distinction between Level I (impact on others) and Level II (own view of self) suggests that source of observation is another criterion implicitly used by the Kaiser group for describing levels. Level I appears to be the self as seen by others (e.g., observers' ratings of group behavior) and Level II the self as seen by the self (e.g., self-description check list).

Finally the *object of description* is not always the same for all levels. The Kaiser scheme at Level III (private communication) invokes another criterion in the form of a "sub-level." The description given in response to a TAT card of the main character in the story (hero) is considered less "deep" than the

description of the behavior of the minor characters in the story (other).

Summarizing, we note that some criteria implicitly used in the Kaiser scheme to distinguish levels of personality are:

(1) *Aspect of Phenomenon* being observed. Aspects are interpersonal behavior, feelings, wishes (motives), fears (anxieties).

(2) *Source of Observation*. The person observing the phenomena in question. Persons are usually self, trained observers, or other group members.

(3) *Object Described*. The person or persons being described. Persons are usually self or other (including others or generalized other).

The major effect of failure to treat these variables systematically is that many types of data are overlooked and different sources of data combined. For example, the self-other distinction with respect to the object being described is used only on Level III in the TAT stories. It could also be used on Level I, for example, by having the subject fill out an interpersonal check list for how people generally act toward him.

In order to illustrate the advantage of systematically applying the same criteria to all Levels, herewith I present a chart that shows all of the possible types of description of personality when the first two criteria are used. Such a schema, enlarged and systematically applied, would, I believe, greatly increase the logical clarity and empirical power of the Kaiser conception of levels.

THE second major issue raised by Leary's work centers on a category system for rating behavior. The interpersonal classification system consists of sixteen categories ingeniously arranged in the form of a circle. The conception of a system utilizing the same categories for describing all levels of behavior constitutes a major contribution. Much of the fruitfulness of this conception lies in the content of the category system itself, which we shall now consider. The major axes of the circle are Dominance-Submission and Hostility-Affection. Each one of the sixteen sections represents behavior characterized as a certain proportion of Dominance or Submission and a certain proportion of Affection or Hostility. For example, the sector com-

PARTIAL ANALYSIS OF KAISER LEVELS OF PERSONALITY

Aspect of Phenomenon	(Question)	Source of Observation	
		Self perception	Others' observation
Interpersonal behavior	(What does <i>S</i> do to <i>O</i> ?)		
Interpersonal feelings	(How does <i>S</i> feel about <i>O</i> ?)		
Interpersonal motives	(How would <i>S</i> like to feel/act to <i>O</i> ?)		
Interpersonal anxiety	(How does <i>S</i> fear <i>O</i> will feel/act to <i>S</i> ?)		

prising mostly dominance with some affection is characterized by such words as *guide*, *advise*, *teach*. The primary use made of this system is to provide a common language for personality description at all levels, thus allowing for the direct comparison of behavior at different levels.

The Kaiser treatment of their own two dimensions appears to be excellent. Dominance and Affection are clearly important dimensions and the investigators have made excellent progress in specifying them in detail. Some research by the present reviewer has, however, indicated the following limitation when the categories are used for describing behavior in a group setting. Within the system no satisfactory method is available for distinguishing a person who makes, e.g., only three comments in the session, all extremely hostile-submissive, from a person who talks a great deal, mostly moderately hostile-submissive. Another dimension, something like *participation* or *prominence* in the group, seems needed to make the description maximally useful. Consideration of the relation of the category system to the theory Leary presents suggests a possible explanation for the omission of this dimension from the Kaiser scheme. In the theoretical section Leary states:

The psychological expression of the survival drive of evolution theory is anxiety. Primal anxiety is the fear of abandonment. As the child begins to develop, this becomes a fear of rejection and social disapproval.

The last sentence is questionable. I would suggest that as the child develops, fear of abandonment becomes fear of *being ignored*, that is to say, social abandonment, rather than social rejection.

Rejection implies that someone cares enough to take the trouble to disapprove. A writer producing his first novel usually has quite different anxieties over (a) having his book receive a strongly negative review in the New York Times (rejection) and (b) having it not reviewed at all by anyone. The latter anxiety seems much more like abandonment than the former.

The omission of a dimension for measuring degree of prominence, and the theoretical failure to discern the anxiety over being ignored are logically related objections. One major technique a person has for handling the anxiety about being ignored is to vary prominence or withdrawal in the presence of other people. This type of behavior lies in the area of interpersonal behavior which seems to have received inadequate treatment from Leary.

LET us now turn to some methodological considerations. This reviewer was left with the paradoxical feeling that the project lacked appreciation for the interdependence of research and theory. For example, the exposition suggests a disinterest in using statistical tools for developing the interpersonal category system. Factor analysis or any of several scaling techniques could have been utilized to test the array of terms. In particular, one is struck by the possibilities of applying the Guttman *radex* model to the Interpersonal category system.

Another methodological defect is that evidently no attempt was made to intercorrelate the various measures used for each level. For example, Level I, Public Communication, may be measured



in four ways: behavior ratings, sociometric ratings, MMPI indices, and ratings from situational tests. Intuitively it seems questionable that these measures would form a cluster of intercorrelated variables. If they do not, then a whole series of problems arises, problems of the type discussed by Kaplan, Lazarsfeld, and others under the title of indicators and indices (weighting of indicators) of a concept. This empirical failure to deal with the problem of intercorrelation of indicators is, like the omission of 'prominence,' presaged by an earlier general argument of the author's, this time about operationism. This discussion omits the crucial problem of how one establishes the fact that different operations are measuring the same concept. Such lack of logical clarity appears to be reflected substantively in the failure to deal with this problem for the measures of levels.

In sum, despite the reviewer's negative comments, this book has real merit. As a contribution to clinical diagnosis it is outstanding. As a contribution to personality theory and methodology it presents many provocative, sound, and clever ideas, many of which I have been unable to mention. Compared to most other attempts to objectify 'depth' personality concepts, this work represents a great advance both in the substantive progress and in the optimism implied in undertaking such a project. With such work and a few other projects like those

at Minnesota and Michigan, it will be more difficult for future psychological trend-analyzers to maintain that clinical concepts are outside the realm of experimental techniques. Most of my negative comments have referred to the content, not the form of the research, for the form merits emulation, and the content consideration and constructive criticism.



## Fact and Fiat in Applied Psychology

**Henri Piéron, M. Coumétou, G. Durandin, and G. de Montmollin**

**Le maniement humain.** (Book V of *Traité de psychologie appliquée*, ed. by Henri Piéron.) Paris: Presses Universitaires de France, 1956. Pp. xi, 959-1241 [283]. 1200 fr.

Reviewed by WILLIAM W. WILKINSON

*who is Assistant Director of the Industrial Division of the Psychological Corporation in New York. He has long been concerned with vocational and industrial psychology, with guidance and counseling, and he says he owes much to his association with Morris Viteles. He wrote this deviant kind of review of this compendium of fact and opinion, so difficult to review or criticize, because CP asked him to.*

**T**HIS book is published as the fifth part of *Traité de psychologie appliquée*, Piéron (Ed.), to consist in seven volumes. The four previously published portions deal respectively with (1) *Differential Psychology*, (2) *Psychotechnical Methodology*, (3) *Aptitudes (Selection and Placement)*, and (4) *Learning Process*.

The present volume is written in four sections: (1) *Perceptual Engineering* (Piéron), (2) *Factors Affecting Work* (Coumétou), (3) *Propaganda and Publicity* (Durandin), and (4) *Leadership* (Montmollin). Each represents essentially an exhaustive coverage and a distillation of the literature. The bibliographies are extensive, include many foreign citations, and draw freely from non-psychological sources. The entire adven-

ture is encompassed in 283 pages.

As far as possible—and, indeed, little else is feasible in such a space—the authors present the fundamentals in each area. At the same time, their materials are largely concrete and factual. Thus they achieve a tightly-written overview of the many topics covered. It is, however, difficult to evaluate the relative soundness or significance of their main points on the basis of the information presented. For this the reader must depend on his own knowledge of the fields.

The reviewer offers the following quotations as illustrations of the selective effect of each author's opinions on his presentation:

PIÉRON—Cybernetics, which deals with general problems in the operation of machines of all kinds, places great weight upon information input as it affects machines' performance. . . . But these very general considerations, of primarily theoretical interest, have not as yet yielded practical applications. . . . It is the facts of psychophysiology that make possible the more effective employment of the man's perceptual capacities. (P. 959.)

COUMÉTOU—Work goes on, subject to the influence of multiple factors whose influence is sometimes opposed, always interacting, and of which the work is the resultant. The relative emphasis placed on these factors has changed with the times, proceeding from the mechanical, to the economic, to the social, to the physiological, and to the individual and personal. (P. 1154.)

DURANDIN—Its [propaganda's] effectiveness depends not only on the psychological mechanisms involved, but also upon the underlying economic, political and other forces. . . . There is a fundamental relationship between propaganda and information: the effectiveness of propaganda is inversely proportional to freedom of speech. . . . Emotional and instinctive factors can also play a part. (P. 1192.)

DE MONTMOLLIN—The problem of leadership is still far from solved. . . . The manifold variables of the social situation must be taken into account along with the plethora of personality variables. . . . The theory of group dynamics has revitalized the area, but will it contribute to a less abstract conceptualization that will simultaneously take into account the man and the institution? (Pp. 1238f.)

If the other six volumes of the series are similar in content and quality, then it is clear that the possession of the whole would constitute a valuable reference source for the field of applied psychology.



TIMOTHY LEARY

# Let's Rejuvenate the Hospitals

Ivan Belknap

**Human Problems of a State Mental Hospital.** New York: Blakiston Division, McGraw-Hill, 1956. Pp. xvi + 277. \$5.50.

Reviewed by PHYLLIS W. HUFFMAN

*Dr. Huffman, a Diplomate in Clinical Psychology with training at the University of Chicago, is certainly "ego-identified with state mental hospitals" (her own phrase), if anyone ever was. She has lived almost continuously in state mental hospitals since her father joined the medical staff of the Elgin State Hospital when she was two years old. Just now she is out of a hospital because she is Chief of Psychological Services of the Department of Public Welfare of the State of Illinois, but this review shows her unwavering if critical affection for these lumbering agents of the social weal.*

AN EXTREMELY stimulating and provocative report of an intensive sociological study of a state mental hospital, this book should be *must* reading for all state employees concerned with hospital administration and policy-making and for the general public with social conscience and interest in effective functioning of the state hospital.

Dr. Belknap reports on data collected by himself and his graduate students during a three-year study of one state hospital. He presents the well-documented thesis that the vitally important problems of organization and administration of such institutions (all state hospitals, not just the one studied) are glaringly ineffective and deficient. This deficiency has resulted from the haphazard and unplanned way in which these institutions have developed. Consequently, the major responsibility for patient care is carried by attendant personnel who are the least trained and lowest salaried group within the institution. Such scathing criticism cannot come as either surprising or as unjustified to those of us who are associated, in one capacity or another, with state mental hospitals. Even for those of us connected with institutions that try to think and

act in terms of treatment and rehabilitation rather than custody, various descriptions in Dr. Belknap's book recall incidents in our own experience that are startlingly similar.

Belknap divides employee personnel into three distinct levels: (1) the executive and administrative level, including the superintendent, assistant superintendent, and clinical director, (2) the professional level, made up of members of the medical staff and other professional disciplines represented in the state hospital, and (3) the attendant level. The mental patients are also divided into three levels: (a) privileged, the working patients, (b) limited-privilege patients, those making a fairly satisfactory institutional adjustment and not needing special care, and (c) patients without privilege, those that are disturbed, untidy, etc.

The hierarchy in employee positions with the attendant at the bottom, the lack of adequate communication between administrative, professional, and attendant levels, the lack of opportunities to carry out constructive programs (even if such projects could be adequately communicated), and the lack of support and direction given to the attendant in carrying out his responsibilities, all these difficulties occur in all state hospitals to greater or less degree.

The validity of these complaints common to all these institutions, especially overcrowding, lack of employee personnel and inadequate salary levels, is generally recognized. Belknap, however, bringing a new perspective from sociology to bear on this problem, suggests that the complaints are only a part of the problem and may very well be effects of some other causes. He clearly shows that the unwieldy organization and resultant low morale affect not only employee personnel both in quantity and quality but also

the type and quality of routine service functions performed. The admission, treatment, so-called continuous care, release and follow-up programs for patients all are affected adversely and, a vicious circle is set up with consequent high employee turnover and inadequate services to patients.

The lack of opportunity to use clinical and other data on thousands of cases in vitally important etiological and diagnostic research studies is mentioned by Belknap but not given the importance that this reviewer thinks it should have. The 'modern psychiatric treatment,' which Belknap advocates, is primarily empirical, in contrast to the rational and specific therapies needed in the field. In short, we are attempting to treat mental disorders without adequate differentiation of the various types which may respond quite differently to different types of therapy. In addition there is pressing need for research into relative weighting of the causes for specific types of mental disorders (somatophysiological, sociopsychological and constitution-etiological factors) before we can attempt to develop the prophylactic programs so urgently needed.

BELKNAP's recommendations are stimulating and provocative. The ideal solution, as he sees it, would be to discard the large, centralized state hospitals and build smaller institutions. In this way the hospital programs could be carried out in close relationship to the surrounding community. An alternate, and more feasible solution would be, he suggests, the restriction of cases admitted, improvement in ward organization and management, increase in budget for all categories, and a shift of services to parallel rather than the current line and staff organization. Most important, he believes, is the improvement in status level for attendant and social service personnel. They require a status of position proportional to the responsibilities they carry.

The reviewer accepts this alternate solution enthusiastically with one exception—the extreme qualifications Belknap suggests for attendant personnel. He proposes that attendants be college graduates with training in psychology, sociology, psychotherapy, group management, and medical nursing and adminis-



tration. This seems to be an over-emphasis on academic training and intelligence to the exclusion of the specific characteristics of temperament that are most needed. There is no direct correlation between collegiate level and empathic understanding, genuine liking for people and a wish to help others less fortunate than oneself. Attendant positions should, nevertheless, be set up with adequate lines of promotion up to administrative positions equivalent to professional staff, including the physician,

as Belknap recommends. There should, however, be a very wide range of attendant positions and salary levels. The attendant with demonstrated ability to work with and help others would then have the opportunity to advance to a suitable prestige level. Morale would be improved and attendant work would become a career service program. Nor would it be necessary to hunt for the many trained college graduates to fill the thousands of attendant positions in state mental hospitals.

with the U. S. Army, vocational counselor with veterans, and chief of a vocational counseling service in a Veterans' Administration hospital.

The author has successfully accomplished the first of the two major goals he set for himself: an overview of vocational rehabilitation in a hospital. Through brief descriptions of the many facets of vocational rehabilitation, we see the counselor as he functions in the counseling and testing areas and as he cooperates with the major professional and administrative sections in the hospital. The relations between the counseling psychologist and the clinical psychologist and the similarities and differences between these two areas of psychology are, however, less effectively presented. It is, moreover, unfortunate that more attention was not directed to hospital industries and their role in providing the patient with job experiences closely related to actual community work.

Approximately half of the book is devoted to comprehensive discussions of the rehabilitation of the diabetic, the amputee, the heart patient, the hypertensive, the paraplegic, the cancer patient, and the skin patient. A useful feature is the illustrative case material included for each disability. Some readers may question the author's choice of disabilities which is based primarily on an analysis of the patients discharged from one Veterans Administration hospital during a six-month period. There is, indeed, some doubt whether these disabilities "give an indication of the areas in which there is most need and emphasis and the greatest likelihood that the vocational counselor will be called on to participate in total team planning."

THE author expresses the hope that "much of what is discussed in this book has applicability for readers active in other types of rehabilitation." Nevertheless this reviewer feels that Dr. Lofquist has not been too successful in achieving his second goal of presenting the hospital counselor as a cooperating member of a community rehabilitation team. The superficial treatment of rehabilitation as a total community program is a serious limitation of the book.

A total rehabilitation program which

## Rehabilitation During and After Hospitalization

Lloyd H. Lofquist

**Vocational Counseling with the Physically Handicapped.** New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1957. Pp. xiv + 384. \$5.00.

Reviewed by ABRAHAM JACOBS

Dr. Jacobs is Associate Professor of Education in the Department of Psychological Foundations and Services in Columbia University's Teachers College. He is primarily interested in the psychology of rehabilitation, especially of the mentally ill, and in the integration of services for rehabilitation in the community. He is in charge of a counselor training program at T.C. And he wants everyone to know that rehabilitatees need help from many people for a long time.

BEGINNING with the passage of Public Law 113 in 1943, there has been a growing awareness of the need to include physical restoration in the rehabilitation process, an awareness that contrasts with the earlier concept of counseling, training, and placement undertaken with regard to the existing disability.

Since medical treatment is usually the initial stage of rehabilitation, an important responsibility is now assigned to the hospital, with the implication that MHB (maximum hospital benefit) means more than terminal medical treatment for a disability or injury. The hospital must assume its share of responsibility,

together with the other resources for rehabilitation, for helping a handicapped person make the most effective return to the community, including his satisfactory job adjustment. Expanding existing vocational services in a hospital, and the assignment of state rehabilitation counselors as hospital staff members are indications of a growing awareness that initiation of services in the early stages of disability is significantly and positively related to successful rehabilitation.

Until now we have had but limited attention to this aspect of rehabilitation. Hamilton's *Counseling the Handicapped in the Rehabilitation Process* (1950), and Kessler's *Rehabilitation of the Physically Handicapped* (revised 1953), discuss the hospital's role only briefly. *Rehabilitation of Psychiatric Patients* (1950) by Rennie and Woodworth, and *The Therapeutic Community* (1953) by Jones are concerned mainly with the mentally ill.

The present work by Dr. Lloyd H. Lofquist, Associate Professor at the University of Minnesota, meets a definite need by focusing attention on vocational rehabilitation in a general hospital. Dr. Lofquist has drawn on his experiences as personnel psychologist

begins in the hospital should not end there. It requires intensive and continued utilization of community resources. Dr. Lofquist, however, devoted only seven pages to the hospital counselor's relationships outside the hospital. The State Division of Vocational Rehabilitation, perhaps the most important rehabilitation resource, and sheltered workshops which are essential tools in vocational diagnosis, in evaluating and developing work tolerance, and in helping the patient bridge the gap between hospital and community, are each treated in but a single paragraph. Another serious limitation for readers not familiar with rehabilitation practice, is the very superficial treatment of the expanding role of the United States Office of Vocational Rehabilitation and the impact of Public Law 565 passed in 1954.

A general criticism of this book is its failure to give the reader a feeling of the professional identity of the rehabilitation counselor. The author stresses the general techniques of counseling, testing, and diagnosis, but does not focus on the unique problems faced by the vocational counselor and the specific contributions his training and experience permit him to make to the total therapeutic program. Although the vocational counselor's role as a member of the hospital staff is effectively handled, his unique responsibilities as a member of the broader community rehabilitation team are treated superficially.

These limitations and omissions are probably inevitable when the approach to the complex field of rehabilitation is made in a single volume. They reflect the difficulty of trying to combine, as the author apparently intended, a professional orientation to the emerging philosophy of rehabilitation, with an operational description of rehabilitation as practiced in a specific setting.

Despite these limitations, the practical guides Dr. Lofquist has provided for the beginning counselor in hospital rehabilitation, the suggested areas for research and investigation, and the proposed in-service training program for hospital counselors, make this first organized treatment of rehabilitation in a hospital setting an important addition to the literature of this rapidly growing field.

## What the Patient Actually Said

Harold A. Abramson

**The Patient Speaks.** New York: Vantage Press, 1957. Pp. xxi + 239. \$3.50.

Reviewed by ZANWIL SPERBER

*Dr. Sperber is Assistant Professor of Psychology in the University of California at Los Angeles and also a clinical psychologist in the Psychiatric Clinic at the same university. He is especially interested in the process of interpersonal communication and the ways in which patient and therapist form impressions about each other, and he is planning research in this area.*

THE author, a psychoanalytically oriented allergist, proposes to demonstrate: that emotional conflicts can cause or intensify allergic symptoms; that the nature of the psychodynamic factor in allergy, usually attributed to "maternal rejection," should be reformulated in terms of the "Cronus Complex"; and that psychoanalytic techniques can lead to positive personality changes.

Alice, a 32-year-old married woman, with a life-long history of severe eczema, was treated psychotherapeutically by Dr. Abramson. More than 300 of Alice's therapy sessions were electrically recorded, and the volume consists primarily of verbatim transcriptions of segments selected from the interviews.

With the major exception of Rogers and his colleagues, psychotherapists have not made available for public scrutiny substantial samples of their therapeutic work. Most of the publications dealing with the theory and technique of psychotherapy present only brief, illustrative examples of patient or therapist behavior. The aspiring psychotherapist in a pre-practicum graduate seminar is, perforce, asked to deal with a complex phenomena which he looks at through a conceptual reducing screen.

According to the clinician-author's predilection, the therapist's task is variously described as 'interpreting resistance,' 'mobilizing counterwill,' 'reflecting feeling,' and so on. Since most of these books are written by therapists, not patients (Lucy Freeman's and John Knight's are rare exceptions), we have an even poorer picture of the patients con-

ception of the therapeutic task. Every beginning therapist knows how difficult it is to relate the concepts he has read about to the actual events observed in psychotherapy. We need more books such as this, accounts which preserve the richness and complexity of the psychotherapeutic interaction and permit us to work back from the real world to concepts which organize our thinking about it. In this way we can begin to assess both the applicability and limitations of our conceptual tools.

The "Cronus" myth refers to the parental engulfing of children, which the author poses as the central psychodynamic problem for allergic patients like Alice. Dr. Abramson does not find it necessary to refer to Rank's valuable discussions of the problem of individuality and differentiation, which are so pertinent to his own formulation. After 300 therapeutic sessions Alice is free of eczema, but her stated need to become independent of her mother still conflicts with her demonstrated need to remain dependent. At this point Alice's mother dies, and although the case continues for many more sessions, the published record ends.

Although transference phenomena have been heavily emphasized in psychoanalytic works on therapeutic technique (cf. Fenichel), Dr. Abramson seems unconcerned about the therapeutic implications of his own often strongly directive behavior (e.g., pp. 134, 230). The directiveness of the therapist, which this patient often comfortably accepted as for-her-own-good, appeared to be as engulfing in its benign way as the mother's more hostile behavior. Subtly the directiveness could imply a lack of confidence in the patient's capacity to become independent, and this could have delayed her progress. Despite Fiedler's cue-sort data, it is difficult to believe that discriminable differences would not have been apparent had a Rogerian or an Adlerian treated the patient.

# High Art and Kitsch

Bernard Rosenberg and David Manning White (Eds.)

Mass Culture: The Popular Arts in America. Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1957. Pp. x + 561. \$6.50.

Reviewed by FRANKLIN FEARING

*who is Professor of Psychology in the University of California at Los Angeles and a social psychologist, or perhaps more accurately a cultural psychologist. His chief interest just now is communication and he has been affected by Benjamin Whorf. His researches on movies and comic strips entitled him to speak with some competence about Kitsch, and, if you do not know the meaning of this new immigrant to the English language, read the review.*

CULTURE, it seems, is either "high" or "mass." Without defending this neat dichotomy we may note its rather remarkable consequences. It classifies and characterizes the content ("art" and the pseudo-art that is produced for mass consumption and called "Kitsch" by the Germans), the two kinds of consumers (the "elite" and the "masses"), and the two kinds of producers (the dedicated artist and the producers of Kitsch). Its most impressive consequence, however, is the intense conflict in attitude and opinion engendered in nearly everybody, and especially in those who do not themselves (with certain exceptions) produce art either "high" or "popular," but are professionally concerned with its critical evaluation. It may be, in fact, that the dichotomy itself is but an expression of basically different attitudes toward life and people, a difference not confined to those who are professionally articulate on the subject.

The larger proportion of the essays in the present volume are contributed by these professional commentators. The names of some of the better-known members of this group—Alexis De Tocqueville, José Ortega y Gasset, Gilbert Seldes, Edmund Wilson, George Orwell, David Reisman, Walt Whitman—indicate the great diversity in background and point of view. In spite of these differences, these critics firmly, even pas-

sionately, subscribe to one or the other of two positions.

I. Mass culture—popular music, best sellers, mass circulation magazines (the "slicks" as well as the "pulp"), movies, radio, television, the comics—is debased and decadent. It is "manufactured" for persons who either were never capable of appreciating high (real) culture, or are so rapidly becoming dehumanized, standardized, and vulgarized that they prefer Mickey Spillane to Shakespeare, Tin Pan Alley music to Mozart, a Rockwell Kent cover on the *Saturday Evening Post* to Braque. Kitsch is manufactured mostly by hacks for the mass market by formula and, as it spreads, destroys high culture. At this point there is some divergence of opinion as to what, if anything, should be done. There are those who view mass culture as hopeless and the masses with contempt, and those who would inaugurate some form of censorship in order to protect the masses (especially children) from contamination.

II. In an era of extended leisure and highly developed communication-technologies a cultural revolution has occurred, and it is good. It has become possible for more people than ever before in history to understand their world and to have contact with every form of high art. Impressive statistics can be quoted. Twenty million recordings of Toscanini and 60 million records of Mozart's music have been sold. The National Broadcasting Company spent \$500,000 to present a three-hour long TV premiere of *Richard III* watched by 50 million persons. Enormous numbers of low-priced reprints of the works of such writers as Plato, Cassirer, Stendhal, William James, and such contemporaries as Pearl Buck, John Steinbeck, and Albert Schweitzer, are sold yearly. Admittedly there is much that is banal and vulgar in popular culture; nevertheless the picture as a whole affords no basis for alarm about the state of popular taste.

Between these two positions, of which the foregoing are much over-simplified

statements, there seems to be no middle ground. The editors themselves are sharply divided and each has stated his case in the two essays which introduce the volume.

THERE remains, of course, a third group concerned with mass culture. These are the social scientists, well represented by such names as Bernard Berelson, Leo Lowenthal, Arthur Broderick, Patricia Salter, Hortense Powdermaker, Paul Lazarsfeld, Robert Merton, and T. V. Adorno. Late-comers to the fray, and wrapping themselves firmly in their mantles of objectivity, they examine the content of specific examples of mass culture as partial reflections of existing values, beliefs, and stereotypes. Or, using empirical methods, they endeavor to discover the nature and extent of the social impact of the great mass media on our society. Although the tools of their analysis have varying degrees of precision, and in spite of the limitations (penetratingly discussed by Leo Lowenthal) which the assumptions underlying this type of study impose upon interpretation, these researches have yielded important insights which could be had in no other way.

It is almost certain that every reader of the forty-nine selections in this book—twelve of them are published for the first time—will be deeply annoyed by some and warmly approving of others, depending, we may suppose, on whether he is Viewer-with-Alarm or a Pointer-with-Pride, or perhaps—and this is pure speculation—on whether, in terms made familiar by the *Authoritarian Personality*, he is a High Scorer or a Low Scorer. This reviewer is no exception. He found, for example, the pieces by Seldes and David Manning White hopeful and acceptable, and the snobbery and arrogance of Edmund Wilson detestable.

Two questions: Why didn't the editors provide a brief biographical note for each of the contributors, and why, oh why, did they not give us an index?



*The writer of art has in mind the psychology of his characters; the writer of trash, the psychology of his readers.*



—SHLOMO BICKEL



# CP SPEAKS . . .

ENGLISH, German, and French. Not to mention Russian. CP is still worried about the language barriers and whether American psychologists accept too readily an isolationism which has become possible because the magnitude of the current American psychological endeavor permits complacency. (See CP, 1956, 1, 331f.; 1957, 2, 119f., 105.) Now, however, C. M. Louttit has given us some data which compare Anglo-American, German, and French psychologists, physicists, and chemists with one another. (*Amer. J. Psychol.*, 1957, 70, 314-316; cf. 1955, 68, 484-486.) See the table on this page, which gives Louttit's data with the decimals rounded off and the figures adjusted after omitting the category "Other." You read the table this way: 26% of the references cited in articles written in the French language were to books or articles in the English language.

The measures of provincialism for the psychologists are 94% English references in the English articles, 91% German references in the German articles, and 66% French references in the French articles. The French psychologists read and use English much more than the Anglo-Americans or the Germans use a foreign language. The French physicists and chemists refer even more often to English articles than to French, and the French chemists almost as often to German articles.

So far as these data go, the psychologists appear more ethnocentric than the physicists, and the physicists than the chemists. This is the sort of thing that Louttit was always doing for his profession. He is going to be missed a lot.

So what? Nothing. CP has no grandiose ambition to alter the culture. W. F. Hill wants psychologists to be sure, when they study languages, that they are not neglecting more important things, like statistics and electronics, and CP is not the evangelist to gainsay him. It knows too much about human prejudice to be enthusiastic about its enthusiasms.

But it does like to point out facts, and just now it has got hold of a couple of paperbacks that ought to help those graduate students who still wish (or have) to learn scientific German or French or both. Both of these books are published in 1957 by John Wiley and Sons, and they are:

George E. Condoyannis. *Scientific German: A Concise Description of the Structural Elements of Scientific and Technical German*. Pp. x + 164. \$2.50.

William N. Locke. *Scientific French: A Concise Description of the Structural Elements of Scientific and Technical French*. Pp. x + 112. \$2.25.

The two authors have taught languages at Massachusetts Institute of Technology for years. Dr. J. G. Beebe-Center, who for thirty years has been Harvard's trilingual psychologist, likes these books. The books aim to teach the students to read, not to speak or even to translate the language. They are superbly simple, he says. He quotes Condoyannis as an example: "There are three large divisions of structure [in German]: The noun-adjective system, the verb system, and the word order." That, says Beebe-Center, has the brevity and clarity of Caesar's comment on Gaul.

And don't, says Beebe-Center, forget to notice the quality and interest of the contemporaneous excerpts that are used as exercises. "No old chestnuts. Little second-hand science. Excerpts from

Einstein and Otto Warburg. Hardly could the student help feeling that, if the books open writings like these to him, they will open to him the other writings he needs in his scientific work." At any rate, if the linguistic frustration of young scientists is one of your worries, take a look at these two books and maybe you will want to ask John Wiley to make the duo into a trio by adding a Russian complement.

To those who are interested in the psychology of the history of science, culture, and thought, Oscar Handlin's *Chance or Destiny: Turning Points in American History* (Little, Brown, 1955, \$3.75) provides the occasion to reread the similar discussion in Tolstoy's *War and Peace* (1869), for the two discussions, if you take the trouble to read them both on the same afternoon, are surprisingly alike. It is true that Tolstoy makes more of the inscrutable forces of History that enslave uncomprehending kings and that promote the trivial royal intentions into the service of History's indiscernible designs, but Handlin too recognizes the existence of great trends like industrialization and democratization, trends that advance themselves—perhaps by some kind of positive feedback—and are insusceptible to influence by the individual person.

The main undertaking of Handlin's book is to show that important crucial events in history are often determined by chance, by unpredictable events that are apt to seem trivial in themselves. Cornwallis surrendered because his attempt to withdraw his army from Yorktown was ruined by a sudden storm that wrecked many of his boats and left his army divided across the York River. But for the storm, would the U. S. A. now be a Dominion? Handlin does not

## HOW PROVINCIAL ARE ANGLO-AMERICAN, GERMAN, AND FRENCH PSYCHOLOGISTS, PHYSICISTS, AND CHEMISTS?

Adapted from C. M. Louttit. *Amer. J. Psychol.*, 1957, 70, 314-316

Read: 26% of the citations in French articles are to articles and books in English.

	Psychology			Physics			Chemistry		
	Eng.	Germ.	Fr.	Eng.	Germ.	Fr.	Eng.	Germ.	Fr.
English	94	5	1	92	6	2	83	12	5
German	3	91	6	37	61	2	24	69	7
French	26	8	66	52	16	32	39	30	31

say that, yet the course of American history in 1781 would have been greatly changed but for the storm. The Revolution could have failed. Not all revolutions succeed.

The new gun aboard the Princeton, being displayed in 1844 to President Tyler and his Secretary of State, Upshur, burst on being fired and killed Upshur, who had been appointed because he was thought to have the tact and skill needed to bring Texas into the Union without raising the issue of slavery. So the delicate task fell to the aging and disappointed Calhoun whose acerbity exceeded his tact, and the issue of slavery was raised. Texas presently came in, but it is taking more than the Civil War to settle this issue that is still with the United States.

Lieutenant Commander Schweiger, commanding the German submarine U-20, was returning to his home port on May 7, 1915, discouraged at his lack of successes, when he saw through his periscope a large vessel in British waters which the Germans had proscribed. He let go a torpedo, and, as the vessel went down stern-first, he could just make out the name on the bow: *Lusitania*. And so—is or isn't *so* the right word here?—the United States came into that war.

The United States Navy thought Pearl Harbor impregnable. They were prepared for attack anywhere else in the Pacific. And the Japanese, following out Admiral Tojo's perilous plan on December 7, 1941, were anything but confident. Their slim chance succeeded and the United States then was in another war. What if the majority opinion about Pearl Harbor's being impregnable, an opinion widely held in Japan too, had been right?

Is the case the same for science? What if Newton had not been born?

"Nature and Nature's law lay  
hid in night:

God said, Let Newton be! and  
all was light."

Alexander Pope, who made that remark, lived in the century when the Divine Will handled the unpredictable and natural law the predictable. Without Newton there would have been no *Principia* in 1687, but presently there would surely have been gravitation, just as surely as the American physicists

knew that the Soviets too would have the atomic bomb, given time.

You can find chance operating in scientific discovery and in the happy insight that leads to an important discovery, and one argument for basic research is founded on the unpredictability of the useful applications of fundamental laws; nevertheless, given motivation, there is a rational orderedness to scientific discovery that introduces into the historical process a predictability that is hindered or sped up by chance events but is not ordinarily completely stalled. This is why we speak of the *Zeitgeist* when we seek a concept to explain synchronous independent identical discoveries, inventions, and insights. History lords it over the scientist because history—Tolstoy's *History*, Handlin's *Destiny*—is the culture, the total accumulation of fact and value available to the individual scholar. By them is he influenced without his knowing how or how much. Because of them his contribution becomes a 'next step,' and often it is in spite of them that the 'next step' is the unpredictable one of creative originality. So is originality necessarily chance? It can be. Remember Fermat's theorem that no one else ever proved, the theorem with the lost proof? But what about an originality's happening twice in the same year? What about Alfred Russell Wallace's and Charles Darwin's formulating the theory of natural selection independently by 1858? Adams' and Leverrier's independent discoveries of the planet Neptune in 1845? Gray's and Bell's invention of the telephone in 1876?

Handlin's book is delightfully written. Read it. It is a good thing to have the case for the operation of chance in history, for unpredictability, made so clearly and irrefutably. The notion of a *Zeitgeist* as imperative Destiny ought to be scotched. Progress is what happens, usually what has happened, as Handlin says; its direction is never certain or clear until it has entered the past. But after—with Handlin's help—you have got rid of superstitions about the inevitability of history and have fully accepted the fact that unpredictable chance may in important ways intervene in the causal nexus, there still remain the various problems as to how the total mass of available fact and value, too

complex ever to be specified, influences and determines human conduct and thought, discovery and originality, governed, it seems at times, by some positive feedback that makes their course appear purposive because it is consistent and not wholly unpredictable.

**T**URKISH psychology presses ahead on the scientific path after much delay. Carroll C. Pratt and John Volkmann were successively at the University of Ankara and now Spaulding Rogers is there. The University of Istanbul had visiting professors from Germany irregularly—Wilhelm Peters from 1937 to 1952. Now it has for three years Walter R. Miles, emeritus from Yale, and he has sent *CP* volume 1 of the *Istanbul Studies in Experimental Psychology* (Istar Baha Matabaase, 1956, 160 pp.). This is a little volume of which a third is in English and two-thirds in Turkish. Half of the 160 pages are written by Miles (two-fifths of these in Turkish, three-fifths in English) and the other half by three Turkish authors. It's only a start, but then what do you expect of a baby?

**N**ow the second of the five volumes of Alexander Grinstein's *Index of Psychoanalytic Writings* (International Universities Press, 1957), Freudenberg to Lampl, items 10715 to 19521, is out. The appendix of this volume has a special bibliography of Ernest Jones. Three more volumes to come.

**T**HE Dryden Press has just reprinted Theodore M. Newcomb's *Personality and Social Change*. *CP* asked Dr. Robert B. Zajonc of the University of Michigan to examine the reprint and tell *CP* what comment it should make on this event. He says that the book is a reprint and not a new edition, and he comments that "the work, which is known as the *Bennington Study*, examines attitude change within the context of a college community and is a classic in social psychology. Since it has been out of print for nearly ten years, its reappearance," he assures us, "should be welcomed." *CP*, knowing Newcomb but not this book, is confident that Zajonc's comment must be correct.

—E.G.B.

# To Choose a Mate, Understand Yourself

James A. Peterson

**Education for Marriage.** New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1956. Pp. xxiii + 429. \$5.50.

Reviewed by LOUIS KERDMAN

Mr. Kerdman is Assistant Director of the Marriage Counseling Service of Greater New York, the first service of this kind in New York, one that he helped establish. He is also Clinical Case Supervisor of the Out-Patient Clinic of the Veterans Administration in Brooklyn. He is a former Fellowship recipient from the American Association of Marriage Counselors, is now majoring at Columbia in the field of Education for Marriage and family life. In short, he knows a lot about the subject.

THE author, James A. Peterson, is an Associate Professor in the Department of Sociology and Marriage Counselor at the University of Southern California, where he established one of the first programs for marriage counselors on the doctoral level in any American University and one of the first successful marriage counseling clinics in California. He is a past Vice-president of the Marriage Counseling section of the National Council on Family Life.

One of New York's leading newspapers recently carried an article describing how Univac, the electronic brain used for solving complex business problems, was employed as a stunt by a television program to bring together two people on the basis of the similarities of their dislikes and desires. Out of several thousand cards, a twenty-three-year-old receptionist and a twenty-eight-year-old advertising executive were selected as the ideally suited couple. When they met for the first time, both immediately acknowledged that they were 'truly' suited to each other. They became engaged and announced plans to get married. About six months later, the engagement was off! What went wrong?

According to the girl, her ideal prospective mate lived up to her expectations as long as the "television people were paying for it." He was kind and sweet; he took her to nice places to dine and dance. Once the excitement was over, he did not take her out so often. When he did, it was to an inexpensive movie. He bought a house in which they were to live, but his parents announced they were going to move in and live with the couple.

Much can be gained from the conclusions this young girl arrived at as a result of her experience. She is quoted as saying: "It takes time to find out about the other fellow. I guess you might say it is the human element."

It is precisely this 'human element' with which Dr. Peterson is so vitally concerned and which he so expertly discusses in his book. The human complexities inherent both in the selection of a mate and in the adjustment process following marriage are more than fully appreciated by the author, who records, from a wealth of data, the results of his elaborate and detailed research.

While the purpose of the author's effort is to provide a text for students, one that will help them achieve the personal adjustment and the broad insight necessary for a permanent and happy marriage, the discussion can very well serve another function: It may provide a few sobering thoughts for those whose inclination it is to experiment with the happiness of others by using mechanical devices for mating, and for those whose loneliness drives them to become subjects of such experimentation.

These individuals will discover in *Education for Marriage* that there is a

host of factors—psychological and sociological—which demand recognition. Keenly conscious of these forces and sensitive to their implications in interpersonal relationships, the author has documented his array of data in a systematic and comprehensive manner. He discusses, although not in equal detail, every facet of human interaction inherent in the preparation for marriage and in the achievement of togetherness in the marital relationship.

While drawing from his own rich experience, Dr. Peterson tends to lean heavily on the research done by such sociologists and psychologists as Burgess, Wallin, Terman, Bowman, Harvey J. Locke, and Landis. Consequently, his emphasis seems to be more upon the necessity to relate to social 'norms' than upon the psychological factors influencing individual behavior. In this respect the volume follows the established pattern used by so many other authors on the subject. What is lacking in the discussion is consideration of the kind of dynamic interaction between partners so warmly and perceptively described and analyzed in the *Happy Family* by Levy and Munro. There is, however, more than speculative justification in the author's approach to his subject. Since his primary audience are students and since it is his hope that they will use his material for developing a self-awareness, some basis for comparing and contrasting is required.

WITH this in mind, Dr. Peterson introduces at the end of each chapter an exercise in "self-analysis." It is his hope that, "if the reader will be faithful in relating these conditioning factors [such as recreational, religious, socioeconomic attitudes] to himself, he may develop an awareness of those aspects of his personality which will be hindrances or assets in adjusting to marriage." This development of insight seems to me to be the underlying theme of the book. Many clinicians may question the actual benefits an individual can derive from such self-analysis. One argument proposed by Dr. Peterson is that the exercises in self-analysis are primarily intellectual. This approach frequently becomes the *modus operandi* against overcoming one's resistances. More important it is, however, that self-



analysis provides no protection against the process of *selective inattention*. Harry Stack Sullivan describes this term in *The Psychiatric Interview* as meaning "that one overlooks, or is inattentive to, that which has provoked anxiety, and shifts to some other topic." It is not to be said that the author places his entire faith upon self-analysis. He is cognizant of its pitfalls, as can be seen by his suggestions to his readers that when they encounter problem areas which cannot be resolved through self-analysis, they should consider seeking the help of a counselor.

*Education for Marriage* can hardly be viewed as a magnum opus in so far as original findings, new conceptualizations, and formulations in the field of

marriage and family life are concerned. Its major contribution rests in the author's scholarly, precise, and skillful treatment of his material. Those who are interested in such phases of family living as childhood experiences, dating in preparation for going steady, behavior during engagement, sex relations and problems of living together will find this book gratifying indeed. Dr. Peterson has exercised considerable restraint, dignity and self-awareness in dealing with these subjects and has assiduously avoided obvious imposition of value judgments. In view of his positive and constructive approach I recommend this book, not only as a text for a college course, but also as a source for all those who are interested in the subject of family life.

Edwards discusses plainly and directly, a method of "successive intervals," which, a modification of the method of equal-appearing-intervals, involves adapting thereto certain of the concepts typically associated with the method of summated ratings: Guttman's scalogram analysis; a technique of "scale discrimination," basically the method introduced, some years ago, by Rundquist and Sletto in their book, *Personality in the Depression*; the combination of certain features of this method with selected features of the method of equal-appearing-intervals and the method of summated ratings; and, finally, the H and W techniques, the latter, a method of paired comparisons utilizing items selected originally in accord with the method of equal-appearing-intervals, and the former, a method in the tradition of scalogram analysis, one of combining responses elicited by two or more items to yield what are known as contrived statements—and the use of these (instead of the original statements in isolation from one another) as the basic items in a scale.

Certainly any student desiring to know something about the techniques by which attitude researchers construct their various measuring devices will find Edwards' book a most helpful summary. He discusses each method clearly and succinctly and points up, significantly, many of the problems which each method involves: problems such as reliability, internal consistency, scalability, reproducibility, ambiguity, scale value, irrelevance, discriminial dispersion, universe of content, scale and nonscale type, marginals, cutting points, response-pattern stability.

**B**UT, after all is said and done, every one of these problems pertains only to some phase or other of internal consistency—consistency from one response to another, from item-response to total score or vice versa; from one scale to another; or from one judge, person, or subject to another. Not a single one—and this is indeed the puzzlement—touches upon the predictive value of the scales, nor upon methods of showing that resultant scores, no matter how derived, are useful in the sense of enabling us to predict behavior, whether symbolic or nonsymbolic, when the event to be

## More Measurement than Validation

Allen L. Edwards

**Techniques of Attitude Scale Construction.** New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1957. Pp. xiii + 256. \$4.00.

Reviewed by LEONARD W. FERGUSON

Dr. Ferguson is Program Director of the Life Insurance Agency Management Association in Hartford, Connecticut. He is the author of *Personality Measurement* (1952) and has been involved for many years in research on the selection and evaluation of industrial personnel. In this connection he has developed a "Combination Inventory" used by about two score companies. Just now he is, among other things, working on a history of industrial psychology as it has emerged from W. V. Bingham's group centered on the Carnegie Institute of Technology in Pittsburgh in 1915-1924.

"**T**IS a puzzlement, 'tis a puzzlement," says the King, in *The King and I*. And so say I, after having read and re-read, and having pondered upon, Edwards' new book on the *Techniques of Attitude Scale Construction*. How, one asks, can attitude researchers be so completely oblivious to the problem of validation? With one minor exception and, in a section which rightly demonstrates

that no complete one-to-one relationship between behavior and verbal (or other symbolic) expression of attitude can be expected, Edwards nowhere gives more than passing mention to the basic problem of the validation of attitude scales.

True, he does describe and with commendable clarity many, if in fact not all, of the techniques for attitude scale construction now in common use. He discusses, for example, and in detail the historically traditional methods: Thurstone's method of equal-appearing-intervals and Likert's method of summated ratings. And, in doing so, he gives useful and insightful summaries of much of the research which has had as its purpose the comparative analyses of certain aspects of both of these methods. He also discusses the application, in the field of attitude measurement, of the method of paired comparisons and shows how the *Law of Comparative Judgment* was derived therefrom by Thurstone.

In addition to these well-known historically classical or traditional methods,

predicted is extrinsic to the content of the scale.

It may very well be that scales which meet the criteria which Edwards sets forth as desirable are more valid than scales which do not meet these criteria. On this point, however, our author gives us no data. So we remain in the dark as to what effect, if any, the meeting of any of the various criteria of internal consistency may have on a scale's practical utility.

**L**ET my point be clear. I am not complaining so much about Edward's failure to discuss the problem of validity as I am about the fact that attitude researchers, in general, give little more than lip service to this concept. Edwards, who set as his task the discussion of techniques of attitude-scale construction, does this task very well. He does not discuss validity because few are the attitude researchers who have concerned themselves with this problem. Methods of attitude-scale validation not having been developed to any great extent, Edwards undoubtedly found that on this point he had nothing to discuss.

I am, therefore, reminded of the feeling which came over me when, some years ago, I completed my own text on *Personality Measurement*. I realize that a more correct title for my book, if my publisher would but have let me use it, would have been "A discussion of methods which certain psychologists think measure—but which don't really measure—personality." So I wondered if Edwards should perhaps have entitled his book, again if his publisher would but have let him, "A discussion of techniques which certain psychologists think measure—but which probably don't really measure—attitude."

Undoubtedly this last statement, as indeed the tone of this whole review, may sound and yet be hypercritical. I seek to bring home the fact that attitude researchers have concerned themselves, as Edward's book amply demonstrates, much too much with the trivia of scale construction—and much too little with the psychological significance of any results which, by the use of attitude scales, they have been able to secure.

Now that we have in Edwards' book an excellent summary of the techniques,

let us see if we cannot, in the next decade or so, devote a greater proportion of our effort to the psychologically significant problems of attitude-scale validation and prediction therefrom.

## New Hope for Schizophrenics?

**Julius I. Steinfeld**

**A New Approach to Schizophrenia.** New York: Merlin Press, 1956. Pp. 195. \$4.95.

*Reviewed by* JOHN ARSENIAN

*who is Director of Psychological Research at the Boston State Hospital, but who also teaches clinical psychology at Boston University and conducts research in clinical psychology at Harvard. Yet he says he would rather be called a student of human affairs than a clinical psychologist. He fears being typed. He is impressed by this book because, if Steinfeld is right, a lot of things ought to be changed.*

**A**N extraordinary book deserving—demanding—the attention of all engaged in the treatment of psychotics, of all interested in theories of schizophrenia, of all alarmed by the human waste and drain of this illness on families, taxpayers, and professional people. Its designation of the trauma producing schizophrenia is shocking because it is so simple and commonplace.

The thesis: "Deprivation of food at the earliest critical point of life, even for only a short time" is the "primal trauma." This hunger trauma in the first four to eight weeks has the effect of "overstraining the vegetative brain" which then "throughout life remains in the state of high cathexis." Hence the characteristic primitiveness of some schizophrenic symptoms, their "oral level," and the concept of regression as the touchstone of psychosis.

The early onset of the trauma makes it inaccessible to psychoanalysis. A "non-analyzable nucleus" remains to which there is no psychological access because the trauma happened "in a preverbal, premnemonic, pre-ego state."

Dr. Steinfeld states, re-states and illus-

trates forty times over that to be effective, treatment must be pitched to get a response from the brain at the level of its differentiation at the time of the trauma. Even so, he underscores the statement: "We have become increasingly convinced that for the psychotic there is no 'cure' possible." Remissions, spontaneous and induced, there are, and Dr. Steinfeld is vigorous and unrelenting in their facilitation and generously supporting of them when they are achieved.

The procedures he experimented with and recommends are based on the principle "Only specific stimulation of lower centers leads to satisfactory remissions in the schizophrenic." To the end of reproducing a brain state putatively resembling the early hunger trauma, he used electro-shock therapy in series or by continued stimulation, and inhalation of acetone either following ECT or during Pentothal sleep. He advocates these approaches which upset a "pathological equilibrium" by stimulating the midbrain and comments that Serpasil and Thorazine are effective for this reason. With remission so obtained, psychological support becomes workable.

With the dramatic caption "An Appeal" as a subhead to a chapter on socioeconomic aspects, the author pleads that society adopt the principle "that the patient be treated during the healthy interval."

Dr. Steinfeld has left a powerful message—for he died shortly after reading the proof of this book. Can we afford to ignore the discernments of a man psychoanalytically trained, who has served as medical director of a sanitarium for about 15 years and devoted some 35 years to the exploration and treatment of mental illness?

This reviewer is not competent to judge the physiologies of the argument. The author, moreover, was not explicit about his recommendation for preventive work. Nevertheless in 17 short chapters and 40 case histories there is a something powerfully disturbing about this book. It strikes the midbrain. It upsets the cradle. We should find out whether a revolution in the nursery is in order.

A re-newed approach to chronic schizophrenia is outlined here. If indeed the author has struck upon an elemental truth, then his epitaph should be re-written.

# The Sexual Pattern in the Male Rat

Knut Larsson

**Conditioning and Sexual Behavior in the Male Albino Rat.** (Acta Psychologica Gothoburgensia, I.) Stockholm: Almqvist & Wiksell, 1956. Pp. 269.

Reviewed by CAROLINE H. MEIXNER

*Dr. Meixner is a University Fellow at Yale University, undertaking research with Dr. Frank A. Beach, who suggested that CP ask her to write this review. Her first research—it was on sex hormones and olfactory thresholds—was done under the direction of Carl Pfaffmann at Brown University. She is mainly interested just now in what goes on between S and R in instinctive behavior.*

WITH the growing accumulation of neurophysiological discoveries bearing upon the mainsprings of organized behavior—the drives and appetites—there is great need for the kind of analysis this volume represents: the systematic description of relatively stable, relatively stereotyped innate consummatory patterns.

In this book, Knut Larsson, of the Psychological Institute of the University of Göteborg in Sweden, reports an impressive series of original investigations that make up the most thorough account available of the sexual behavior of the intact male rat. The experiments of the first seven chapters trace clearly the changes in performance as the animal approaches sexual exhaustion, the recovery of sexual responsiveness in the days following satiation, the effects of group activity, the influence of diurnal cycles of light and darkness, and the rise and decline of sexual activity with age. Another set of experiments, ingenious in conception, records the effect of enforced rests between successive intromissions. The hour-long observations Larsson has used throughout are a more revealing unit of behavior than the truncated ten-minute or fifteen-minute tests employed by most earlier research.

The work of the closing four chapters is less successful. Reasoning from Pavlov's theory of the irradiation of cortical inhibition, Larsson postulates that the refractory period after ejaculation is part of a spreading inhibitory state which should generalize even to nonsexual responses. This hypothesis is not confirmed. Actually, these studies are of greater interest if they are considered as instances of drive interaction or drive competition, for they pit bar-pressing for food against intromission with the receptive female in hungry rats. Until the animal nears sexual exhaustion, intromission apparently is prepotent.

Perhaps the most significant generalization to emerge from the work as a whole is that the measures of copulation (the pattern of discrete intromissions that precede ejaculation), of ejaculation itself, and of the periods of inactivity that follow, may be independent parameters. The data suggest distinct mechanisms, each with its characteristic response to stimulation, its individual course of recovery, and tendency to alter with age.

After reviewing the literature on the physiological variables in sexual performance, the author concludes that ejaculation is under hormonal control, that copulation depends upon activity of the cerebral cortex, and that refractory periods are determined by the rate of metabolism of neural tissues. The evidence on each of these points, however, in the reviewer's opinion is at best tenuous and indirect; at worst, it has already been rendered dubious by the findings in other laboratories. For example, all three measures are influenced by male hormone at moderate doses. The argument for the cortical control of copulation is based on

the doubtful premise that neuroexcitatory drugs, which increase the rate of copulation, act upon the cerebral cortex. On the other hand, the role of the diencephalon and other subcortical structures is not touched upon, even though hypothalamic nuclei have long been implicated in emotional and appetitive behavior. The interpretation has assumed explanations just where it ought to raise the most searching questions.

In the statistical treatment of his results, Larsson has had to deal with the special difficulties of scoring and analyzing sexual performance. On some measures, it is possible to obtain scores only for the most vigorous animals. The author has handled the problem of self-selection sensitively and astutely, with the result that the exhaustion process is faithfully reconstructed. Unfortunately, in most of the experiments, he could not, for practical reasons, apply the analysis of variance so, of necessity, he resorted to individual *t* tests to compare experimental conditions. He has, however, consistently failed to recognize that the number of such independent comparisons which are possible is always one less than the number of groups.

Yet, despite its shortcomings, the book is a valuable one. It stands as a handbook of sexual behavior—albeit for a single rodent species—which integrates with its own careful observations a very extensive literature and provides a useful 247-item bibliography. Throughout the work, the author has accepted the difficult but necessary task of interpretation. The volume is a matrix of fact and speculation, and it abounds in suggestions, explicit and implicit, for future research.



*So, of anything you please you will say, if you are logical, that either it is a gillig or it is not, and that if it is a gillig then it is a gillig, because it can't be a gillig and also not be a gillig. All this is true as can be—because we say it is. So long as all agree to this, that is all there is to it.*

—WENDELL JOHNSON





# Power as a Social Concept

Arthur Kornhauser (Ed.)

**Problems of Power in American Democracy.** Detroit: Wayne State University Press, 1957. Pp. ix + 239. \$5.00.

Reviewed by MORRIS JANOWITZ

who is Associate Professor of Sociology at the University of Michigan, and the author of many articles on social dynamics and four books: *The Dynamics of Prejudice* (1950), *Reader in Public Opinion and Communication* (1950, with Bernard Berelson), *The Community Press in an Urban Setting* (1952), and *Campaign Pressures and Democratic Consent* (1956).

POWER, as a concept in social science, is not easily operationalized. On the other hand, power is that kind of a concept that alerts the social scientist to the full complexity of his subject matter. It is understandable that social psychologists should have veered away from the analysis of power because of its various and amorphous implications.

For this reason, the volume of essays, *Problems of Power in American Democracy*, which Arthur Kornhauser has edited, is of high utility to all psychologists who consider their discipline part of the social sciences. What is truly remarkable about the book is that for the five contributors the concept power shows high convergence, for power is a characteristic of both human systems and personality systems, of small groups as well as complex social organizations. Power refers to the ability of individuals and groups to make decisions which influence the behavior of other individuals and groups. As such, it is a concept for bridging psychological and sociological thinking.

Each year a member of the Wayne State University faculty is appointed to the Leo M. Franklin Memorial Lectureship which enables him to organize a series of lectures on the analysis of human relations. When Dr. Arthur Kornhauser held this lectureship it was understandable, because of his lifelong perspectives, that he should have chosen the topic of

power for interdisciplinary analysis. This volume is a collection of five lectures presented in this series. The value of these essays is derived from the fact that they are reflective and interpretive statements of how different orientations in social science are being brought to bear on the problem of power in contemporary society.

Robert S. Lynd, the sociologist whose concern with power dates from his field work for his well-known monographs on Middletown, in his essay sees power rooted in the social structure of society. For him it is the institutional organization of the social structure which makes possible the identification of the roots of power. While seeking to refute the belief that power inevitably corrupts, he calls for a functional analysis; he is concerned with the power imbalance that he finds in American society because of the concentration of private economic organizations.

Professor Harold D. Lasswell, political scientist, psychoanalyst, and professor of law, focuses his discussion on the processes of organization centralization—public and private—as a basic dimension in the dynamics of power. He analyzes the problem of power balance in American society in the context of international pressures. The lack of an appropriate ideology he holds to be a handicap for obtaining democratic control of the processes of social change. Although he starts with social analysis, he emphasizes the relative independence of leadership in modifying processes of power.

A. H. Maslow uses the model of the authoritarian personality as a basis for developing psychological criteria for judging the democratically oriented individual. Theorizing on this topic is indispensable, he thinks, for a democratic society presupposes an equivalent personality type. His essay raises many fundamental questions for those experimenters who are concerned with democratic processes and consensus in small group situations.

In the essay by C. Wright Mills, the power elite—economic, military, and political—is seen as the crucial index for the analysis of the problems of power. Although the concept of the elite is becoming more and more a tool for understanding power processes, Mills' essay is more polemic than analytic.

Finally, Kornhauser himself sympa-

thetically analyzes the operations of power processes on the work of the scientist himself. Whether one accepts or rejects the view that science should serve to enhance freedom, it is an essay designed to force each social scientist to examine his fundamental values.

Psychologists who are concerned with the social context of their work will find the book most stimulating. Psychologists who believe in complete scientific detachment will find the book annoying. The important point, however, is that the book is an appropriate example of the point of view represented by the accomplishments of Arthur Kornhauser, the conviction that psychologists can pursue scientific precision and still be concerned with the social context of their research.

## Patches Do Not Match

William R. Spiegel, Edward Schulz, and William B. Spiegel

**Elements of Supervision.** (2nd ed.) New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1957. Pp. xii + 349. \$6.00.

Reviewed by ALLYN MILES MUNGER

who is Advisor on Employee Relations Research of the Standard Oil Company of New Jersey (30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20). He has been at that work for the past five years. Before that he was with Richardson, Bellows, Henry and Co. in New Orleans, and before that he was in the Veterans Administration as a clinical psychologist.

HERE we have a revision of a book first published in 1942 to meet the needs of the war effort. It is based on a training course and reminds me of many of the courses present in industry today. Built during the war on the best information then available, these books then filled a real need. Since that time, however, with both changing needs and new information, they find themselves revised, revamped, and frequently beefed up with 'human relations' and frequent contradictions. That the authors have gotten themselves into this predicament can be seen when at the bottom of one page they say the entire chapter has

been influenced by a pamphlet published by the General Motors Corporation and at the bottom of the facing page, in the same chapter, they say that the inspiration for much of the material in the chapter has come from *Management and the Worker*, published in 1939.

If one wanted to be satirical one could say that the authors are at their best when their conflicting statements are at least a page apart. That would not be talking about individual differences and group morale, where they say, "The group has a tremendous effect on the human relations problems in industry. In terms of modern society the group takes precedence over the individual. Historically the group or tribe had priority and only recently has the individual been recognized. The doctrine of the individual's rights and of the individual as a separate political entity is comparatively recent historically."

That is a sample of a difficulty that occurs with such frequency that the reader finds himself constantly flipping back a few pages because he is sure the authors, a bit ago, said just the opposite. I think the way out of this dilemma, which is common to this field, is simply to start to write all over again without trying to revise.

It was difficult for me to decide for whom the book is intended, nor did an examination of the jacket and the preface remove this uncertainty. I do not think the book is meant for the research worker, for it rarely refers to research findings. I do not think it is meant for the first-line supervisor for the language level at times is difficult. The authors, moreover, attribute to the supervisor a control over his department which should be further up the line, as I think of supervision.

Presumably the text has two real values. One is to the executive in impressing him with the extreme difficulty and complexity of the job the supervisor is expected to do. The authors' problems is this connection can be seen by their repeated insistence that each of the duties is the most important. The book also may be of direct value to the training man as showing the number of problems the supervisor faces, problems running from mental hygiene to statistical quality control. In short, I cannot find in this volume an answer to modern training problems, but it made me think.

## READINGS IN EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

edited by Jerome M. Seidman

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## Cases: Persons or Records?

Lloyd Cook and Elaine Cook

**School Problems in Human Relations.** New York: McGraw-Hill, 1957.  
Pp. xi + 292. \$5.50.

Reviewed by STEPHEN M. COREY

*Dr. Corey is now the Dean of Columbia's Teachers College. He has a background in psychology proper, having worked at Illinois with Bentley, Woodrow, and Griffith years ago. He has written books on action research in the improvement of school practices and on instructional leadership. He is Director of the Horace Mann Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation and until last September served as head of the Department of Psychological Foundations and Services. He is concerned also with audiovisual aids for teaching. In short he is an educational psychologist par excellence.*

It is not uncommon to insist that the effectiveness of schools is largely determined by the quality of human relations among school personnel, including pupils and parents. It is somewhat more formidable to take on the task of describing not only what was done to cope with a large number of specific problems in human relations, but also what should have been done. It is even more ambitious to attempt to present training materials for people working in education, a presentation that will result in increased generalized competence in human relations. The book by Lloyd and Elaine Cook undertakes to do all of these things.

The case for more attention to human relations in school work is well put. The authors do not develop the point, but the time will undoubtedly come when a school system of any size will employ a consultant in human relations. Some schools do now. It certainly is as important to have attached to the staff a social psychologist who can assess and analyze human relations as it is to have someone who knows a great deal about school buildings. The problem, of course, is that everyone is supposed to know

about human relations. To advise on school buildings obviously takes an expert.

The major part (160 pages) of *School Problems in Human Relations* consists of selections from over 5500 cases dealing with school and community problems in human relations. The authors had accumulated these materials over a ten-year period of teaching and research. Each of the nine chapters in Part II includes several cases related to some central problem. Chapter 4, for example, includes seven that have most pertinence to the beginning teacher. The cases, generally, are short, running from a dozen lines to a maximum of two or three pages. They are 'disguised' and are presented for analysis and discussion as a kind of training in human relations. The authors include a brief note on 'case teaching' in which they stress variation in the use of such materials.

ANALYZING and discussing cases as a means of learning how to diagnose human situations and to behave better in them is an interesting and oftentimes a fascinating activity. One of the difficulties when disguised cases are used to teach what to do about complicated human relations is that there is no opportunity to test speculations by reference to reality. Most of the cases in the book were written by amateurs and represent their singular perception of what happened and why. When this is so, and when, too, for understandable reasons, the locality is disguised and the personalities are renamed and not available, a great deal of time can be spent hypothesizing analyses that cannot be checked. Such procedures may lead to superficial inference and to the general notion that complicated human situ-

ations can be dealt with quickly and effectively.

Some of these hazards are reduced when the case study represents careful observation and extensive, rather than popular and truncated, presentation, or when the person who wrote the case study is present and questions about further facts and relationships can be answered, or when sophisticated people like the Cooks are parties to the discussion.

There is some reason to believe that case discussion may, to paraphrase the authors' use of Ruskin's statement, "Teach people to know what they do not know but not to behave as they should behave." The analysis of cases as a means to the improvement of human relations is not completely different from learning to paddle a canoe by reading and discussing a painstaking description of the sequence of events in canoe paddling written by a kinesiologist.

There are at least two schools of thought about training methodology in human relations. One is primarily sociological and the other is psychological in its orientation. The sociologists interested in human relations training, and the Cooks seem to be in this group, put great emphasis upon the analysis and discussion of cases. Roethlisberger of the Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration is one of the group's influential spokesmen. (F. J. Roethlisberger *et al.*, *Training for Human Relations*, 1954.)

Another point of view toward this kind of training, more psychological in its orientation and strongly influenced by Lewin's writing, is represented by several staff members at the Research Center for Group Dynamics at the University of Michigan. (Ronald Lippitt, *Training in Community Relations*, 1949.) This group is persuaded that effective training in human relations should provide a great deal of actual practice and experimentation with human behavior. This experimentation is to be followed, of course, by assessments that provide opportunities for realistic feedback of effects and for conceptualizing.

The discussion of cases of human relations results in improvement in the ability to understand and analyze the cases, but not necessarily in more adequate behavior in human situations.



Certainly much of this latter behavior is talk. But it is talk primarily *as* human relations behavior, not talk primarily *about* it. Even the latter, of course, can be viewed as both, and there is some indication that the Cooks did so. The distinction, however, between talk as social behavior and talk about such behavior was not central to the training rationale.

*School Problems in Human Relations* seems to imply an acceptance of laboratory practice in human relations in theory but of case analysis in fact. The explicit references the authors make to the psychology of learning or of teaching and learning were enlightened and sug-

gested that sooner or later they would attend to the behavior that must be practiced if improved human relations are to result. Actually they say little about psycho-drama or role playing. There is one page with some "rules for socio-drama" but it was of limited use because its rules were not related to a conception of education or training that would give them maximum meaning.

The general writing style of *School Problems in Human Relations* is interesting and sometimes breezy. In part for this reason the impression is occasionally given that the authors are dealing with conceptions that can readily and quickly be grasped. This they would be the first to deny.

guide sheet, a "Who Am I" test and a personal data summary.

Maladjustment was defined to include both "aggressive maladjustment" and "passive maladjustment." The gifted group included the children of high intelligence, those with talent in the fine arts, those with special abilities in science, mechanics, athletics and human relations, and those with "creative problem solving" ability. A preventive and remedial program was developed using both volunteers from the community and professionally trained persons.

The plan is to continue for ten years the community developmental and remedial program for the exceptional children selected. Since the project was in its fourth year when this report was prepared, no final results as such were available.

## How to Help Children

**Paul H. Bowman, Robert F. DeHaan, John K. Kough, and Gordon P. Liddle**

**Mobilizing Community Resources for Youth.** (Supplementary Educational Monographs No. 85.) Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1956. Pp. viii + 138. \$2.50.

*Reviewed by* RALPH H. OJEMANN

*Dr. Ojemann is Professor of Parent and Family Life and Director of the Preventive Psychiatry Research Project in the State University of Iowa. He has long been active in the study of youth, in parent education, and in other phases of mental hygiene, and has received in the last half dozen years two awards, one by the Iowa Association for Mental Health for his outstanding work in that field, and the other by University of Chicago Alumni Association for his leadership and service.*

HERE is a third report on the work of the Community Youth Development Project of the Committee on Human Development of the University of Chicago. The purpose of the project is to devise methods for identifying children with special talents and children suffering from emotional maladjustments, and to test the effectiveness of a developmental program that utilizes community resources and is specially designed for such exceptional children. The authors' statement of the general hypothesis underlying the study reads as follows:

An average American community with its own resources of persons and finances can significantly improve the mental-health level and the extent of the use of the talent of its children when interested persons in the community are given information and training in scientific methods of human development.

The first two reports on this project described the general plan of the study and provided a description of the experimental and control groups. This third report gives a brief account of the design of the study, summarizes the screening procedures and describes the characteristics of the children selected for study.

All of the children in the fourth grade of the public schools in Quincy, Illinois, in 1952, constituted the experimental group. All of the children in the sixth grade served as the control group. A variety of tests was used to locate the "maladjusted" and the "gifted" children. Five instruments, specially designed in the course of the study, are described. They include a "Guess Who" test, a behavior description chart, a diagnostic

SOME of the results obtained with the screening tests and the major characteristics of the several groups selected are of interest at this point.

For example, the withdrawn children were more often girls than boys, were more apt to be average in their grade, and tended to come from relatively large families.

In the aggressive group there were more boys than girls. They tended to come from large families, many of which were broken by separation or divorce.

The talented children tended to come from the more privileged schools and from the more privileged families within these schools. There were about three times as many girls as boys in this group.

The last five chapters are devoted to a description of procedures for meeting the needs of the children selected and the basic principles underlying this action program. The authors have set forth their rationale concerning community responsibility—the role of volunteers, the nature of maladjustment, the approaches to treatment, and the function of professional consultants.

This interim report is a valuable account of the screening procedures and the rationale underlying the developmental and remedial program. The authors are to be commended for their care in setting forth the major propositions on which the

community action program is based. They recognize that professional consultants and volunteers may each represent a valuable resource that can be cultivated but that there are many aspects of their effective use about which much more needs to be known. This project has the

potential of contributing not only to the development of more effective screening procedures but also to our knowledge as to how the resources of the community may be utilized. Results of this community program will be awaited with much interest at the end of ten years.

## Wisdom Tempered by Prejudice

H. J. Eysenck

**Sense and Nonsense in Psychology.** Baltimore: Penguin Books, 1957. Pp. 349. \$.85.

Reviewed by RUTH S. TOLMAN

*Dr. Tolman is Clinical Psychologist and Consultant in In-Service Training of the VA Mental Hygiene Clinic in Los Angeles, and Clinical Professor of Psychology at the University of California at Los Angeles. For twenty years she has concerned herself not only with the practice and administration of clinical psychology but also with the work of administrative boards of the American Psychological Association where her contribution has been more wisdom than expertise. It was in her role as psychologist-at-large that CP asked her to write this review.*

HERE is a book not for psychologists but for their friends. Actually it is written for the public. The style is far too delightful, entertaining, and readable to be addressed to psychologists! There is no bibliography, practically no documentation at all, scarcely a footnote. The reason it should reach the shelves of the friends of psychologists is to save the psychologists from having to answer many legitimate but often tiresome questions. "Is it true that nobody will do anything immoral under hypnosis?" or "Can you pick out a liar by a lie detector?" or "Do dreams really foretell the future?" Simply and clearly Eysenck deals with all of these questions and with many other matters. As a time-saver, psychologists should carry half a dozen copies of this handy little volume around in their pockets for easy distribution.

About a year ago, when publishing an earlier Penguin volume, *Uses and Abuses of Psychology*, Eysenck wrote in his Introduction: "Unfortunately psycholo-

gists, for various reasons, have usually fought shy of writing for anyone but other psychologists; they have preferred to leave the popular exposition of their achievements to people without the scientific background necessary in order to stay on firm ground. . . . Thus popularization of psychology has usually been of a kind to encourage over-optimistic attitudes in some, and exaggerated skepticism in others. It is in the hope of redressing this balance to some extent that I have written this book."

Now he has written another. The first was almost exclusively on the application of psychological principles; this second is more concerned with the principles themselves and with the facts on which they are based. Eysenck regards this volume as a sequel to the first. His wide range of psychological interests and activities, and his varied background, both cultural and geographical, equip him well as a popular expositor. His is a lively style, his logic is rigorous, he is richly allusive, his pointed illustrative anecdotes range freely from Mohammedan yarns of 980 A.D. through 15th-century Persian lore or 17th-century Spanish drama to contemporary blunders in personnel selection. Primarily he is concerned with facts (as he conceived them) and with what conclusions can legitimately be drawn from what facts.

There are two parts to this book—benignly called *Borderlands of Knowledge and Personality and Social Life*. These titles do not correspond to *Sense and Nonsense* as one might at first suppose. Rather they indicate the subject-matter

dealt with. In the *Borderlands* are Hypnosis and Suggestibility, Lie Detectors, Telepathy and Clairvoyance, the Interpretation of Dreams. The second part is devoted to the Measurement of Personality, Conditioning, Politics and Personality, and the Psychology of Esthetics. Sense and nonsense wander in and out and mingle freely throughout the volume. Eysenck is eager to help the layman identify and differentiate between them.

There can be no question about Eysenck's loyalty to the scientific method or about his zeal to communicate to the reader some notion of the nature of evidence and proof. He gives a sound, lucid, popular discussion of the pitfalls of rating scales, the difficulties in the criterion, the vicissitudes of questionnaire construction, the development of objective experimental tests for the measurement of traits. He makes good distinctions between a general law and a begging of the question, and he scrupulously alerts the reader to sources of error. He hangs on to the thread of his argument and is always "returning to the muttons."

WE may question at some points, however, his values and his emphases and the variability in his own objectivity—for example, his glorification of Pavlov and of the primary importance of the theory of conditioned response, his somewhat uncritical tolerance of the "evidence" for extrasensory perception, his superficial discussion of socialization in terms of excitation-inhibition balance. When it comes to psychoanalytic concepts and to projective tests (the "so-called Rorschach," as he puts it caustically), he resorts to ridicule and shocked surprise, even clinging to attacks on such concepts as fixed symbolism in dreams, which Freud himself had very early abandoned. While Eysenck is more than justified in deploring the lack of impartial investigation and examination of the nature of evidence on the part of analysts, surely he is going a bit far when he says that "all we can dream about if we follow the Freudian theory is sex and sex and sex again," and that "what is new in Freudian theory is not true and what is true is not new." This comment is more like spleen than science.

So, when the psychologists distribute their copies of this little Penguin volume,

one will use his blue pencil on one passage, and another will strike out a different one. Yet for all that Eysenck, as a bright and versatile psychologist talking to laymen, has done a very skillful job.

## Bibliographic Indigence

**Daniel H. Funkenstein** and **George H. Wilkie** (Eds.)

**Student Mental Health: An Annotated Bibliography.** London: World Federation for Mental Health; Paris: International Association of Universities, 1956. Pp. v + 297.

Reviewed by **GEORGE W. GOETHALS**

who is Research Associate in Harvard University's Laboratory of Human Development and also for the Joint Commission on Mental Illness and Health (in Cambridge, Mass.). He took his doctorate at Harvard with John W. M. Whiting and Robert R. Sears, taught psychology at Sarah Lawrence College where his research interests included the problems of role conflict and achievement motivation in women, and is now deep in a three-year study of mental health in the nation's schools.

A COLLECTION of some 1800 items relating to student mental health, compiled by Daniel H. Funkenstein, Clinical Associate in Psychiatry at the Harvard Medical School, with the assistance of George Wilkie. It was assembled for an international conference on student mental health held last year at Princeton, New Jersey. The preface to the book was written by the Chairman of that conference, Dr. Dana L. Farnsworth, Henry K. Oliver Professor of Hygiene, Harvard University.

A bibliography in any field must fulfill a number of conventions. As the sonnet must first satisfy the structures of its form, so must a bibliography. The conventions applied to a bibliography are the canons of good scholarship. If they are present, the critic can then go on to appraise content. When they are absent, his questions concerning content become complex for, if these conventions are not

observed, he cannot help but feel uneasy about the judgment which has shaped the substantive aspects of the work.

It is unfortunate that this work is so deficient in the conventions of scholarship, for its value is immediately open to suspicion by the critical reader. The rules of citation, abbreviation, capitalization, and italics are ignored in arbitrary fashion. Occasional lapses in accuracy or citation can probably be found in any work, and on such occasions charity disperses criticism. When, however, errors of convention and citation reach a figure of between 20 and 50 per hundred, when we find works cited with no reference (as in no. 959), then the matter cannot be ignored or the effect upon the reader underestimated. The difficulty becomes compounded when we find at the conclusion of the work no index of the literature read, nor explanation of the multitude of foreign and American journal abbreviations.

An inspection of this bibliography thus puts the reader on guard because of its carelessness. The initial suspicions aroused by faulty scholarship are, moreover, confirmed on the substantive level. Of course, some limitations are implicit in any initial work in a complex field, and no first compilation can ever be the last word. The authors, however, make claim to citing "most of the important literature." Admitting to "inadvertent" omissions, they omit the work of Marvin Opler, George Devereux, John Honigsmann, A. Irving Hallowell, and John Gillen. These scientists, more than any

others, have put into clear context the theoretical propositions relating mental health of the individual to the group or culture of which he is a member.

The reasons for inclusion and exclusion in this bibliography are not clear. The book claims to include articles which relate directly or theoretically to student mental health and to exclude those which are unrelated or deal with "special groups of students." Why, then, we may ask, are articles relating to foreign students (no. 1056) included along with numerous citations of work relating to fraternity groups, and materials dealing with "veterans, adults, medical and law students" omitted? There is great value in E. R. Hilgard's *Theories of Learning*, but its relevance to the mental health of students is at best indirect. Such limitations severely damage the value and prestige of this initial contribution to a field badly in need of organization and codification. Considered as a first step, the volume gives good coverage, but only as a first step.

It is unfortunate that the authors did not subject their manuscript to more editing or examine the formats and plans of other scientific bibliographies in the behavioral sciences, especially C. M. Heinicke and Beatrice Whiting's *Bibliographies on Personality and Social Development of the Child*. If they had done that, they could have made a more valuable, scholarly, and properly delimited contribution. As it is, they replicate the "chaos" that is lamented by the author of the preface of this work.



*We spend much of our childhood picking up a vocabulary; we like to air our latest finds; we discover that our elders are tickled when we come out with a new name that they thought beyond us; we devote some pains to tickling them further; and there we are, pedants and polysyllabists all. The impulse is healthy for children, and nearly universal—which is just why warning is necessary; for among so many there will always be some who fail to realize that the clever habit applauded at home will make them insufferable abroad. . . . But now and then even an able writer will go on believing that the incongruity between simple things to be said and out-of-the-way words to say them in has a perennial charm; it has, for the reader who never outgrows hobbledehoyhood; but for the rest of us it is dreary indeed. . . . Such labels as pedantic and polysyllabic humour may help to shorten the time that it takes to cure a weakness incident to youth.*

—H. W. FOWLER





# FILMS . . .

By ADOLPH MANOIL Film Editor

## Film Reviews

### PARENT-CHILD RELATIONSHIP

#### Their First Teachers

The City College Institute of Film Technique. Hans Richter, Director. R. C. Pennington, technical adviser. 16-mm., black and white, sound, 10 min., 1956. Available through Pennsylvania Cinema Register, Audio-visual Film Library, Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Penna. Rental, \$1.75.

Characteristic aspects of the home in terms of parent-child relationships are clearly presented. The home is the main social-cultural factor in the development of the child, for it is at home that the child's first needs are satisfied and that the beginnings of social adjustments take place. The attitude of the parents and their understanding of the needs of the child represent basic factors in his development.

The parents are the first teachers of the child. They teach him the language, habits of behavior, a variety of likes and dislikes, and, in general, basic ways of interaction with his environment. Through their continuous contact with him, they provide the basic environmental conditions for his growth and development.

Social and moral responsibility toward children is implied in the nature of parent-child relationship as sanctioned by our cultural patterns. The appropriate discharge of that responsibility requires adequate understanding of the needs of the child as a growing individual.

The film illustrates the nature of parent-child relationship with emphasis on parental responsibility as to understanding and providing a home environment conducive to the appropriate development of the child.

The impact of parental attitudes is vividly illustrated through the presenta-

tion of the development of speech defects as related to lack of understanding and inadequate verbal interaction.

The film could be used with lay audiences. Its message should contribute to a better understanding of the needs of children and of the responsibility of parents as their first teachers.

### VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

#### Health Careers

Produced by the National Health Council, as part of the Health Career Horizons Project. A Wilding Picture Productions film. 16-mm., black and white, sound, 13½ min., 1957. Available through Health Careers Film Service, 13 East 37th St., New York 16, N. Y. \$25.00.

The choice of a vocation presents problems of interest not only to the young person who begins his orientation in the world of work but also for society in general. The discussion about the need in the United States for technicians is but one example of the social and national aspects of vocational guidance.

The area of health as a vocational field presents an easily understood social need for it requires not only technical efficiency, but also an attitude of understanding of human needs.

Vocational monographs and other literature on occupations provide much information on opportunities for work, but having the data is not enough. The information has then to be sifted, read, and assimilated.

Gathering information and its appropriate use presupposes motivation and also some knowledge of a field that often is beyond the acquaintance of the high-school student. This difficulty can be partially solved through the work of the vocational guidance counselor, for he can provide information and stimulate inquiry, although mainly at a verbal level. The information often proves to be too abstract to be effective.

The field trip and the actual contact with various occupations represent a step further in the practice of vocational guidance. Actual conditions, however, do not always allow for this direct contact with the world of work. The problem then is to find a way that would provide the nearest approach to direct communication.

The 16-mm. motion-picture film provides for exactly this kind of communication. The film through actual photography of characteristic job situations can present complex aspects of work much better than words alone.

Through identification with people at work the situation becomes real, understanding is enhanced, and vicarious participation in the job is facilitated. In this way the motion-picture film becomes a powerful auxiliary for effective vocational guidance.

The value of the film as a tool for vocational guidance has been recognized for a long time, and today there are available a great number of such films for almost all the important occupational areas.

*Health Career* is a recent vocational guidance film in the area of health occupations. It provides a survey of the field and is supplemented with a special guidebook and other health-career publications.

Various film sequences present discussions of high-school vocational guidance, supplemented with scenes depicting different health occupations. The survey covers such careers as the health-service worker, the dietitian, the nutritionist, the dental assistant, the dentist, the medical research scientist, the student nurse, the occupational therapist, the ward clerk, the veterinarian, the pharmacist, and many others.

The film as a whole provides general information and short pictures of more than thirty health occupations.

While the area surveyed cannot provide detailed information on various health careers, it allows for discussion and stimulates further inquiry. A discussion leader and the *Health Careers Guidebook* should provide for an effective analysis and understanding of the whole area of health occupations.

The film represents a valuable aid in vocational guidance at the high-school

level and could be profitably used with classes in that area.

## Films and Other Materials

### VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

#### Health Careers

16-mm., black and white, sound, 13½ min., 1957. Produced by the National Health Council. A Wilding Picture Production. Available through Health Careers Films, National Health Council, 1790 Broadway, New York, N. Y., and Health Careers Film Service, 13 East 37th St., New York 16, N. Y. \$25.00.

This is a vocational guidance film in the area of health work. It is aimed mainly at the high-school student and presents various health careers with indications as to type of work and prerequisites.

### SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

#### Arab Village

16-mm., black and white, sound, 12 min., 1956. Orville Goldner with cooperation of Harold B. Allen, producers. Available through Young America Films, Inc., 18 East 41st St., New York 17, N. Y.

Life in a small rural settlement in Lebanon.

### SCHOOL INTEGRATION

#### A City Decides

16-mm., black and white, sound, 27 min., 1957. Produced by Charles Guggenheim and Associates under the supervision of Fleishman-Hillard, Inc., St. Louis, for the Fund for the Republic. Available through Contemporary Films, 13 East 37th St., New York 16, N. Y. \$75.00, rental \$7.50.

The problem of school integration and approaches to its solution as worked out in St. Louis, Mo.

### PSYCHOLOGY OF PERCEPTION

#### Perception

16-mm., black and white, sound, 17 min., 1957. Clifford T. Morgan, collaborator. Available through Text-Film Department, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 330 West 42nd St., New York 36, N. Y. \$100.00.

Principles of perceptual constancy, attention, and set are analyzed and illustrated.

# ON THE OTHER HAND...

### IS CP CONTEMPORARY ENOUGH?

CP has been pleading for letters from readers. And I'm a reader from cover to cover.

I was enormously interested in the Razran review of recent (?) Russian publications (CP, 1957, 2, 93-101). From my vantage point, this is a *Psychological Bulletin* piece and not one for CP. Valuable, provocative, and all that—but, from CP, I expect to sit right down, if so moved, and send an order to a publisher ordering one copy. With these Russian things, I cannot do it. Essentially this good piece is a reflective and critical review about unavailable items. (Those reviews of two French volumes on psycholinguistics are quite another matter; I could sit down and write to a Paris friend to procure same or else use those coupons of UNESCO.)

CP now strives to cover the new psychological books. . . . When I look through the list of "Books Reviewed" each month against the actual books reviewed, I'm dismayed at the lag here. As a reader of some seven APA journals for many years, I think I received more and wider coverage than I am now getting from CP.

I want to know, basically, what is inside the book under review (and this is more than a quick listing of a table of contents), what the author's purpose was and how well in the eyes of the reviewer (these, to date very well selected, I think) the book has done the job. The aim of such reviews would be to summarize the contents, with evaluative remarks, so that the reader might know whether to buy the book or not. I don't think CP is the place where bibliographies and references in parentheses have a place. Let's have wider coverage of the available stuff.

W. L. BARNETTE, JR.  
University of Buffalo

### NILES NEWTON'S MATERNAL EMOTIONS

It seems to me that CP's readers should know that Eileen Bloomingdale's review of Niles Newton's *Maternal Emotions* was in striking contrast to some other evaluations the book has received. CP's review reads:

"Unfortunately, not all experimental work in the area of feminine psychology is worthwhile. The complexities of personality dynamics cannot be sacrificed to the shibboleth of IBM objectivity without producing psychologically useless and even nonsensical results."

F. D. Zeman, M.D., in the *New England Journal of Medicine*, notes instead: "The scope and purpose of this monograph is clearly stated in the subtitle, *A Study of Woman's Feelings toward Menstruation, Pregnancy, Childbirth, Breast Feeding, Infant Care and Other Aspects of their Femininity*. To the investigation of these complex problems, Mrs. Newton brings her sound professional training as a psychologist." "Study of the whole book with special reference to the practical applications in each chapter is recommended to all physicians who desire to bring more understanding to the problems of womankind."

Dr. Emily Mudd, Director of the Marriage Council of Philadelphia, writing in the *Bryn Mawr Alumnae Bulletin*, states: "As Dr. Newton herself intimates, one of the most important reactions that her excellent research can accomplish is to stimulate more and yet more questions and point the road to their solution."

Internationally the book has aroused considerable interest. Reviews were published in *Lancet*, *Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology of the British Empire*, *Canadian Medical Journal* and *Medical Journal of Australia*. *L'Enfant* of Belgium translated a chapter into French and published it.

*Marriage and Family Living* requested Grantly Dick Read, M.D., to review the book for them. He stated: "I sincerely urge all those who are interested in motherhood . . . to read and reread this book and follow it up by selections from the excellent bibliography it contains."

Popular interest was also indicated, for the book was quoted in *Reader's Digest* (August 1955), and Dorothy Barclay wrote about it in the *New York Times* (28 March 1955).

CHARLOTTE AIKEN

Co-Editor, *Child-Family Digest*

The practice of "reviewing" . . . in general has nothing in common with the art of criticism.

— HENRY JAMES

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BERTOCCHI, P. A. *Free will, responsibility, and grace*. Nashville, Tenn.: Abingdon Press, 1957. Pp. 110. \$2.00.

CALIGOR, LEOPOLD. *A new approach to figure drawing*. (American Lecture Series, No. 292.) Springfield, Ill.: Charles C Thomas, 1957. Pp. xii + 148. \$4.50.

CARTHY, J. D. *Animal navigation*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1956. Pp. 151. \$3.95.

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OPLER, M. K. *Culture, psychiatry and human values: the methods and values of a social psychiatry*. (American Lecture Series, No. 287.) Springfield, Ill.: Charles C Thomas, 1956. Pp. xiii + 242. \$6.00.

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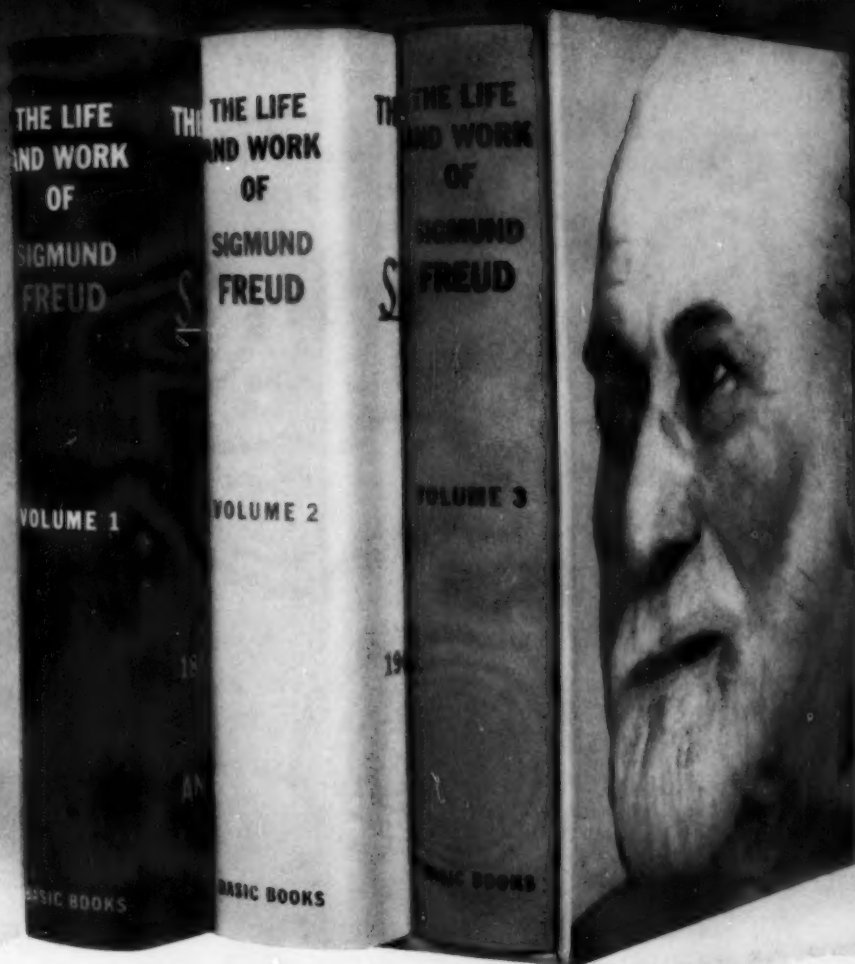
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